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ABSTRACT

This study is an historical survey of philosophical concepts, movements, studies, reports, and practices selected as being significant for an understanding of the efforts to increase the quality of teacher education and the establishment of what has been designated as competency/performance based teacher education (CBTE) programs. Part one describes the purposes, scope, and nature of the study and includes a definition of terms. Part two reports significant antecedents of CBTE prior to the twentieth century. Part three reports developments in educational theory and practice in CBTE programs early in the twentieth century. Part four discusses the nature of teacher education and factors leading to the development of competency/performance based programs. Part five summarizes the search for antecedents of CBTE while discussing the various roles a teacher must assume--a person, a teacher, a member of a profession, and a citizen. (MM)

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ANTECEDENT DEVELOPMENTS IN THE MOVEMENT TO PERFORMANCE-BASED PROGRAMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

An Historical Survey of Concepts, Movements, and Practices Significant in the Development of Teacher Education

by

J. Galen Saylor

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Explanatory Note

The Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education invited the author to prepare a study of the antecedents of performance-based programs of teacher education. The Committee had already published a noteworthy series of studies and reports in the area of teacher education and wanted to add to its list an historical study of teacher education with particular reference to concepts, movements, and practices that significantly contributed to the development of performance-based programs in the 1960s and 1970s. It was planned that the report be 10,000-20,000 words in length for publication by AACTE as a part of the series.

The author submitted a prospectus and outline for the study that was approved by the Committee. However, the completed report was more than 60,000 words with an extensive set of footnotes. After much consideration of the matter, the Committee decided that it was beyond the purpose and the plan of the project to publish the document. It was accepted as a working paper for the use of the Committee.

In light of the interest expressed in the subject by teacher educators, the author has decided to make a limited number of copies of the manuscript available for distribution to those interested in the subject and to appropriate depositories. Appreciation is expressed to the Committee and to the AACTE for the privilege of making it available in this manner.

Lincoln, Nebraska
November, 1976

J. Galen Saylor

PREFACE

This study is not a history of teacher education; it is an historical survey of philosophical concepts, movements, studies, reports, and practices that the author has selected as being highly significant for an understanding of the efforts in recent years of teacher educators throughout the nation to plan and carry out better programs for the preparation of teachers, with special reference to the establishment of what have been designated as competency- or performance-based processes for the education of teachers.

Hence the limitations of the survey are three: The literature analyzed should contribute significantly to an understanding of the eventual development of competency-oriented programs of teacher education in the late 1960s and 1970s; the concepts, movements and studies to be analyzed were selected by the author on the basis of his own value system of what constituted significance; and they should have significance nationally or internationally in teacher education circles.

The body of literature included extends from the writings of Plato (also reporting Socrates dialogues) to publications of the early 1960s. Inasmuch as the establishment of competency-based programs dates from the mid-1960s, the search for antecedents ends at that time.

Readers may find the report useful in understanding the long struggle through which programs for the education of teachers for our schools have evolved and the need for continued efforts to improve these programs of professional training.

J. Galen Saylor

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PART I

THE NATURE OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER 1

PURPOSES, SCOPE, AND NATURE OF THE STUDY

Purposes of the Study

This study is an effort to

1. Locate, list, and quote as appropriate the writings of eminent scholars and leaders in the field of education bearing in a significant manner on the concepts and practices of performance- or competency-based programs for the preparation of teachers.
2. Locate, list, and quote as appropriate reports, studies, and accounts of developments, trends, and practices that contribute significantly directly or indirectly to the subsequent development of performance- or competency-based programs of teachers education.
3. Analyze this literature in terms of its contributions to the development of these programs.
4. Summarize and interpret the contributions of philosophers, scholars, and other educational leaders and of pertinent reports and studies to the concepts and practices of performance- or competency-based teacher education programs.

The process of providing a program of schooling for anyone by its very nature necessitates a choice among alternatives and hence invokes values and choices based on a value system. This requirement applies doubly in the matter of teacher education for it comprehends a conception of the functions and purposes of the school in which the teacher will guide the process of learning but also a conception of the manner in which the teacher himself/herself should be prepared to fulfill those responsibilities in a school. At the outset, then, it is appropriate to state the point of view of the investigator about the functions of the common schools.

Functions Served by Schools

Historically a school has been established by a social group to perform these functions:

1. Contribute to the transmission of the culture of the group.
2. Assist in the socialization of the young.
3. Aid in the preservation of the society as a nation.
4. Help prepare the young for adulthood.
5. Promote the personal development of the young.[1]

Obviously, these functions are not discrete; they are intermingled, but schools do vary among themselves and over a period of time in the relative emphasis given to each function in the total instructional program of the school.

Teaching and Teachers

An analysis of the roots and philosophical antecedents of the present efforts to develop programs of teacher education based on the concept of competency to perform the duties and responsibilities of a teacher necessarily will encompass these broad aspects:

1. The essence of teaching. What is teaching? What does a teacher do in his/her professional role of teacher?
2. The competencies needed. What abilities, qualifications, attributes, and competencies does a teacher need to fulfill these roles and functions to the high degree of proficiency desired?
3. The development of these characteristics and proficiencies. How may a teacher best acquire these attributes and competencies? How may a teacher education program assist most effectively in this process?

A consideration of the nature of teaching and the competencies needed to be a successful teacher must be based on the broad purposes that the social group collectively expects the schools to serve. A narrow conception of the primary functions of a school would render untenable any analysis of the roles and responsibilities of a teacher and misconstrue the nature and scope of teaching itself.

Scope and Organization of the Study

In tracing the philosophical views and the historical trends that have contributed significantly to present developments and interest in comptency-based teacher education programs severe restrictions on the scope of the study had to be imposed--otherwise this volume would be encyclopedic in nature and suffer in usefulness to the profession. Hence, only the writings of eminent scholars who have been accorded lasting recognition for decades for the depth, insight, and influence of their works on educational thought and practice have been included in the report. For the more recent period of educational history, roughly from the 1940s to the present, only reports and publications of educational societies, organizations, and agencies that have sought to shape programs of teacher education in recent years, or the writings of nationally recognized scholars and other leaders that deal overtly and specifically with the concepts and practices of a competency-based program of teacher education will be treated.

The presentation is organized in rough chronological order, for that seems to be as useful and more feasible than other approaches. We are seeking the genesis of the rationale, concepts, and practices of competency-based programs, and the big ideas that contribute significantly to an understanding of the movement, and development of such programs. The programs, models, and discussion of performance-based teacher education programs themselves will not be considered here, since this study deals with antecedent development. Hence, the search of literature terminates at about 1968.

Definition of Terms

In this investigation the meaning in which certain words or phrases are used will be as follows:

Teacher. A teacher must always be regarded as a "personality system with needs, predispositions, a set of past experiences, unique values,"[2] modes of behavior, sets of capabilities, competencies, and talents, character traits, attitudes, and similar aspects of a human being who directs the learning of others.

Teaching. Teaching is whatever this person does when he/she acts in his/her professional role in planning, guiding, carrying on, and evaluating activities designed for the schooling of learners (known as students) in a formal program of education. "What he does is influenced by all the factors which make up his personality system, only one facet of which is related to his profession."[3]

Education. Education is the process of reconstructing experience so that it results in the addition of some knowledge, attitude, belief, value, skill, mode of behavior, competency to deal with a new situation, or enjoyment for the individual.

Schooling. Schooling refers to the process of providing experiences in a formal, organized social agency known as a school for the purpose of furthering the education of its enrollees.

Teacher education. The term "teacher education" designates that portion of the schooling provided a person who intends to become or is a teacher that is designed primarily to provide the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, values, skills, modes of behavior, competencies or enjoyments that enable the individual to be a better teacher than would otherwise be the case.

Perfomance-based, competency-based programs of teacher education. Much of the controversy about the current movement in teacher education programs stems from the concepts embodied in these terms. This whole matter of meaning, definition, and conceptual base has been presented adequately in other publications.[4]

In the search for the antecedents of performance-based teacher education programs, the term will seldom, if ever, be found in professional literature on teacher education until the late 1960s. Hence, the roots of the movement will be traced here on the basis of concepts, proposals, and recommendations of a more general nature, although the term "competencies" or statements directly implying such qualifications is to be found much earlier.

Competencies-in-performance programs of teacher education. In this light of this broader approach to an analysis of antecedents, it is deemed best in this study to use the term "competency-in-performance programs of teacher education" (CPPTE). This phrase will designate programs of teacher education that are designed to develop specific, readily identifiable competencies demonstrable in performance of teaching, and capable of being judged for quality by appropriate methods of evaluation. This definition will guide the search for antecedents of present-day programs of competency- or performance-based teacher education, and serve as the criterion in selecting these antecedents.

Footnotes

[1] Significant expositions of these functions may be found in Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, *The Unique Functions of Education in American Democracy* (1937), *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (1938), and *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy* (1941) (Washington, D.C.: The Association); Lawrence A. Cremin, *The Genius of American Education* (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1965); Bernard Bailyn, *Education in the Forming of American Society* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1960); John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1916); Lawrence Kohlberg and Rochelle Mayer, "Development as the Aim of Education, *Harvard Educational Review*, 42:449-96 (November, 1972); R. Freeman Butts, "The Public School: Assaults on a Great Idea," *Nation*, 216:553-60 (April 30, 1973); and R. Freeman Butts, "The Search for Purpose in American Education," *College Board Review*, 98:3-19 (Winter, 1975-76).

[2] James B. Macdonald, "Educational Models for Instruction--Introduction," in *Theories of Instruction*, eds. James B. Macdonald and Robert R. Leeper (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965), p. 3.

[3] Macdonald, p. 3.

[4] See especially Stanley Elam, *Performance-Based Teacher Education: What Is the State of the Art?* PBTE Series: No. 1 (1971), pp. 1-2, 5-11; Harry S. Broudy, *A Critique of Performance-Based Teacher Education*, PBTE Series: No. 4 (1972), pp. 1-5; AACTE Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education, *Achieving the Potential of Performance-Based Teacher Education: Recommendations*, PBTE Series: No. 16 (1974), pp. 4-11 (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education).

PART II

SIGNIFICANT ANTECEDENTS OF COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS PRIOR TO THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

CHAPTER 2

ANTECEDENT PHILOSOPHICAL CONCEPTS ABOUT EDUCATION AND TEACHING

The Greek Philosophers

Although the renowned Greek writers of the pre-Christian era had important things to say about education in general, they considered the act of teaching, roles of teachers, and competencies needed to fulfill these roles only incidentally and indirectly. But examples of outstanding teaching are amply given in the extensive literature of that period.

Socrates (470-388 B.C.)

In his famous dialogue with Meno,[1] as reported by Plato, Socrates dramatically illustrates the best known and highly acclaimed method of teaching--the dialogue, now simply designated as the Socratic method of instruction. Teaching in the Socratic mode consists primarily of assisting the learner in his/her acquisition of knowledge, as contrasted to mere imparting of opinion by lectures, orations, and answers stating ready-made solutions, and using the powers of persuasion by eloquent rhetoric---the methods of the Sophists against whom Socrates railed.

Socrates believed that knowledge was the basis for all virtue; if a person knows what constitutes virtue he/she will act virtously (a premise not substantiated by recent events in our public life) How does one acquire knowledge? Through his/her own efforts. The role of teacher is to prod, stimulate, and guide the learner in this quest for knowledge--not to engage in futile attempts to tell the learner what he should accept as knowledge.

Socrates explains his method of inquiry, of reasoning, that provides the base for his approach to education and the acquisition of knowledge:

> I first assumed some proposition, which I judged to be the strongest, and then I affirmed as true whatever seemed to agree with this, whether related to causation or to anything else; and that which disagreed I regarded as untrue. . . . I cannot help thinking that if there be anything beautiful other than absolute beauty it is beautiful only in so far as it partakes of absolute beauty--and I say the same of everything. . . . I cannot afford to give

> up the sure ground of the original postulate. And if anyone fastens on you there, you would not mind him, or answer him until you could see whether the consequences which follow agree with one another or not, and when you are further required to give an account of this postulate you would give it in the same way, assuming some higher postulate which seemed to you to be the best founded, until you arrived at a satisfactory resting place; but you would not jumble together the fundamental principles and the consequences in your reasoning--at least if you wanted to discover real existance.[2]

Profesor Laszlo Versenyi, of Williams College, has prepared an excellent analysis of the Socratic method of teaching--the renowned dialogue:

> Socrates' clear cut distinction between opinion and knowledge, appearance and truth, and his belief in the attainability of knowledge and truth changed this [the Sophist's views] radically. . . . In contrast to opinion (right or wrong), knowledge is something reflected upon, something reasoned, criticized, and argued, something that is not merely accepted on someone else's authority but appropriated by the knower himself through rational reflection, made his own by questioning and accepted on his own authority as a reflective human being. . . . What makes the knower a knower is not the truth of the statement but that search for and appropriation of the truth which alone can result in the acquisition of knowledge rather than opinion. . . . Since only one's own search could lead to knowledge, whoever now wanted to teach had only one task: to start the student on his own rational, reflective, critical search. . . . To the extent that a man can be made aware of his lack of knowledge, he can acquire knowledge . . . True teaching must be elenctic, i.e., a questioning of accepted opinions, an examination of beliefs, a refutation of dogmas, a testing of knowledge and an indictment of ignorance--in short, a demand for an accounting and justification on the student's part.[3]

The essence of the Socratic method is (1) by appropriate means--questioning, mockery, irony, fallacious statements, untenable premises--bring the student to a sense of wonderment, perplexity, curiosity, interest and desire to explore and think through a matter of major importance, such as a belief, knowledge, value; (2) by the use of dialogues and similar methods (today investigations, research, group discussions, and interview would be common, also) guide the student in his or her own "self-unfolding"; (3) accept as the end goal of teaching the self-fulfillment of the individual--the basis of human excellence. "The how and the what of this education converged in the study: it was the student's work alone that could give him knowledge, and the knowledge attained was also about himself, his own life, his own good, his own natural end."[4]

Plato (428-348 B.C.)

Plato's concepts of education and of teaching coincide with those attributed to Socrates. In fact, authorities are not sure to what extent Plato, in recording Socrates' dialogues and his Apology was actually reporting Socrates or interweaving his own ideas on education into the rhetoric of the dialogue.

Socrates was primarily concerned with the development of the individual citizen, particularly with the acquisition of knowledge, the derivation of truth, and the cultivation of virtue based on truth. Plato regarded the educational program as a handmaiden of the state, to enable the citizen to fulfill his proper role in the functioning of the state and the promotion of its wellbeing. These ends, however, were to be served by the acquisition of knowledge and the development of virtue. Plato treats educational programs and methods principally in the Republic and the Laws as vehicles whereby the more perfect state is attained. Above all, Plato wanted good citizens, devoted to the state, and attaining individual fulfillment through the activities of the state. The "good life" of the Greek ideal was to be achieved through a "good" state, in which each citizen had his role, with an elite controlling and operating the government of the city-state.

Book II of the Republic and Book 7 of the Laws treat in some detail Plato's ideas on education. Little attention, however, is given to teaching or the role of teachers. Music and gymnastics (broadly conceived) were to constitute the basis of an education for the leaders, "guardians" of the state.

> The love of wisdom, then, and high spirit and quickness of strength will be combined for us in the nature of him who is to be a good and true guardian of the state . . . What, then, is our education? Or is it hard to find a better than that which long time has discovered--which is, I suppose, gymnastics for the body, and for the soul, music?[5]

After a brief discussion of these two aspects of the program, Socrates (Plato) points to method:

> Do you not know, then, that the beginning in every task is the chief thing, especially for any creature that is

> young and tender? For it is then that it is best molded and takes the impression that one wishes to stamp upon it. Quite so. Shall we, then, thus lightly suffer our children to listen to any chance stories fashioned by any chance teachers and so to take into their minds opinions for the most part contrary to those that we shall think it desirable for them to hold when they are grown up?
>
> By no manner of means will we allow it.
>
> We must begin, then, it seems, by a censorship over out storymakers, and what they do well we must pass and what not, reject. And the stories on the accepted list we will induce nurses and mothers to tell to the children and so shape their souls by these stories far rather than their bodies by their hands.[6]

In many of his writings Plato is greatly concerned about the matter of teaching virtue. The long dialogue between Protagoras and Socrates is an excellent example of this concern and of Plato's thoughts on the matter. After describing the role of parents and the nurse in teaching virtue to the little child, Plato has Protagoras saying:

> Later on when they send the children to school, their instructions to the masters lay much more emphasis on good behavior than on letters or music. The teachers take good care of this, and when boys have learned their letters and are ready to understand the written word as formerly spoken, they set the works of good poets before them on their desks to read and make them learn them by heart, poems containing much admonition and may stories, eulogies, and panegyrics of the good men of old, so that the child may be inspired to imitate them and long to be like them.[7]

After giving other examples from music and gymastics, he summarizes:

> Seeing then that all of this care is taken over virtue, both individually and by the state, are you surprised that virtue should be teachable, and puzzled to know whether it is? There is nothing to be surprised at. The wonder would be if it were not teachable.[3]

But Plato has Socrates make the point that the sons of some of the great men of Athens are not shining examples of virtue. Protagoras (Plato) attempts to explain this situation, and concludes: "Thus it is with virtue and everything else, so that if we can find someone only a little better than others at advancing us on the road to virtue, we must be content."[9]

Further, on method, Plato writes in the Republic, Book VII:

> . . . a free soul ought not to pursue any study slavishly, for while bodily labors performed under constraint do not harm the body, nothing that is learned under compulsion stays with the mind. . . . Do not, then, my friend keep children to their studies by compulsion but by play. That will also better enable you to discern the natural capacities of each.[10]

In the Laws, Book VI, Plato has an Athenian explain at considerable length the way in which the system of schooling should be established in the state. He proposes that there should be a supervisor of education as one of the principal officials of the government and insists that "the post is far the most important of the highest offices of state. For in all growing creatures alike--trees, beasts, gentle or savage, humankind--the first sprouts and shootings, if but fair, are the most potent to effect the happy consumation of goodness according to kind." The legislators were inveigled to "appoint to the charge of their direction him who is in all points best of all the citizens."[11]

Christian O. Weber, of Wells College, summarizes succinctly the nature of the Socratic-Platonic methods of schooling:

> It is a wise teacher and reformer who remembers the inherent or potential love of the human heart for ideal perfections. The teacher who strives to awaken the inner and vital interests of the pupil rather than to impose rigid requirements of rote learning from without is applying Platoism to her teaching. She presides, as did Socrates, the great follower of Plato, over the birth of ideas. To awaken interests the teacher holds up tantalizing images of perfection which lurk in all ambitions. She awakens rather than communicates to the pupil the potentialities for development which lie fallow in him . . . .[12]

Aristotle (384-322 B.C.)

Aristotle dealt with the aims and purposes of education and the curriculum of formal educational institutions rather extensively in his writings, especially in his Politics and Ethics, but considered methods of teaching or the role of teachers scantily, except as these matters evolve indirectly from the discourses on education. For Aristotle, education enabled the individual to achieve the ultimate goal of life--the attainment of happiness, and happiness results from excellence in those virtues that constitute the scope of man's activities.[13]

Aristotle states that there are two routes to excellence in the virtues of life: habituation and instruction.

> Some philosophers think that men are virtuous by nature; others, that they become virtuous by practice; still

> others, that they become virtuous by instruction. Certainly what pertains to nature is not in our power but comes from divine cause to a man who is very fortunate. However, discourse and instruction are not effective with everyone but the soul of the hearer must be prepared by good habits to rejoice in the good and hate the evil. . . . But it is difficult properly to direct anyone to virtue from his youth unless he is reared under good laws; to live a temperate and hard life is unattractive to most people but particularly the young. For this reason the rearing of children and their activities ought to be regulated by law. Thus good things will not be distasteful after they become habitual.
>
> It is not enough that the young receive proper rearing and care, but on arriving at manhood they must learn these very things by experience and become accustomed to them. For this we need laws even throughout the whole of man's life, for most men are more attentive to coercion than argument, to what is hurtful than what is good.[14]

Aristotle believed in the development of the individual by extensive practice of various virtues under a regimen of harsh discipline, strict laws, and rigid control, capped by formal instruction that provides the knowledge and understanding that would then guide him in living virtuously throughout his lifetime. As did Plato, his teacher, Aristotle believed that the primary function of education was to enable the person to be an effective, participating citizen of the state, one who lived a moral and virtuous life in accordance with the community's concept of the good life.

European Philosophers and Educators

From the time of Aristotle to late seventeenth and eighteenth century is indeed many centuries but space rules out a consideration of what little was written during that eon that would contribute to an analysis of teaching and the role and responsibilities of teachers in the process of schooling. The great stalwarts of educational theory of Western Europe and England are still to be considered. The works of only a few will be chosen for examination: Kant, Hegel, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, Montessori, and Spencer.

Immanuel Kant (1724-1804)

In the same vein as the Greek philosophers, Kant views education as the means of attaining perfection. He directly and indirectly devotes much attention to matters of education and teaching.[15] During his years of teaching at the University of Königsberg he delivered a series of lectures on pedagogy during a period of four semesters. Extensive notes on these lectures were recorded and edited by Theodor Rink, and it is from this source that Kant's ideas on education and teaching are obtained.

His basic position is stated thusly:

> It is possible for education to become better and better, and for each successive generation to take a step nearer the perfection of humanity; for behind education lurks the great secret of the perfection of human nature. . . . One *principle in the art of education*, which those men who devise educational plans should especially have in mind is this: children should be educated, *not* with reference to their present condition, but rather with regard to a possibly improved future state of the human race--that is according to *the idea of humanity* and its entire destiny. *Good Education is exactly that whence* springs all the good in the world.[16]

Kant believed that pedagogy should be rational, consistent with the basic philosophy of life itself, and based on experimentation. Teachers may take pride in his plea for expertness in the art of education: "In order to improve children, it is necessary that pedagogy become a study, otherwise there is nothing to hope from it, and he who has been educated corruptly trains others in a like manner."[17]

As to the teaching process, Kant said: "It is not enough that children be trained; the most important thing is that they learn *to think*." Moreover, "education and instruction must not be merely *mechanical*, but must rest upon principles."[18] It is for this reason that he pled for experimental schools in which to try out methods and to seek to improve instruction. Kant recognized almost two centuries ago that "one of the greatest problems in education is, How can subjection to lawful restraint be combined with the ability to make use of one's freedom? For constraint is necessary. How shall I cultivate freedom under conditions of compulsion?"[19] Kant then listed three procedures for developing freedom within contraint:

> (a) The child should be left perfectly free, from earliest childhood, in everything (except in such instances where he might injure himself), unless the manner of his freedom interferes with that of others. . . .
>
> (b) The child must be shown that he can attain his aims only as he permits others to reach theirs. . . .
>
> (c) It must also be shown to the child that he is under such contraint as will lead him to the use of his own freedom; that he is cultivated, so that one day he may be free--that is, not dependent on the foresight of others. . . .[20]

Again, Kant sought to move the child to the development of understanding, the use of reason, and formulation of principles for his actions. He speaks at length about the development of maxims [which would be principles of conduct] as the essence of moral education. And these "must spring from man itself."[21]

Kant, as one of the earliest philosophers of the modern era to write on educational theory, has had a tremendous influence on the development of modern educational concepts and practice, not only through his own writings but by his influence on later German and American educational leaders and theorists.

George W. F. Hegel (1770-1831)

Hegel expanded and extended the Idealistic philosophy of Kant, and developed a more thorough, systematic concept of life in its many manifestations. He dealt with education and teaching only in relation to other matters, but his influence on educational thinking and practices both in Europe and this country in the nineteenth century was highly significant in setting the pattern and practices of Idealism as the basis for educational planning and program development. This is the basic philosophy of inculcating fundamental ideals and the form of the world, derived a priori by logic, through school training, with the recognition that only the more superior persons could and should seek to master these understandings, and hence to rise to roles of leadership and governance. The curriculum would be rigid, clear-cut, predetermined and abstract in nature. Teaching would, of course, be directed to this kind of mastery and the acquisition of knowledge.

Johann Herbart (1776-1841)

The Herbartians had great influence on American education in the later part of the nineteenth century. A number of leading educators of this country studied Herbart's doctrines in Germany and became vigorous advocates of his concepts, principles and philosophy. They formed a society, The National Herbart Society, devoted to the advancement of his ideas. It is fair to state that Herbart's extensive writings on psychology and education constituted the first full-scale consideration of the educational process, from defining aims to the art of instruction, available to educators and it is quite apparent why they were attracted so strongly to Herbart's work. His psychology was much more comprehensive, scientific, and advanced than any other theories of the day, but it was principally his proposals for instruction that received enthusiastic support.

For Herbart, "The one and the whole work of education may be summed up in the concept--Morality."[22] He continues: "It is the certainty of its plan which gives value to education; it must see its result beforehand, if not indeed with absolute certainty, yet still with much probability."[23] Herbart was insistent that man left to himself would become a "very clever, calculating, logical egoist." But through education and the guidance of a teacher, a student would develop many-sided interests, a clearness of understanding, and a great energy of character. Herbart did not propose to impose a morality on the student, "but rather insight, together with corresponding volition in the pupil." Thus is it primarily the development of the individual that Herbart sought through education- development that resulted in standards of morality, character, willingness to act on the basis of morality, and the ability "to discern and assimilate new moral and intellectual truth." Power summarizes Herbart's concepts of morality as inner freedom, perfection or efficiency, benevolence, justice, and equity.[24]

Herbart devoted much space to the role and work of the teacher. He especially urged the desirability of thorough planning: "What the educator should care for must lie open before him like a map, or if possible, like the plan of a well-built city." Further, "the teacher must represent the future man in the boy, consequently the aims which the pupil will as an adult place before himself in the future must be the present care of the teacher; he must prepare beforehand an inward facility for attaining them."[25] The concept of the "many-sidedness of interest" is developed extensively in the second book of his Science of Education; it holds much value for teachers today.

Herbart sees that "the teacher himself will be to the pupil an object of experience at once as fruitful as it is direct." The teacher must have clear conceptions of the aims of education and of modes to achieve them. The importance Herbart attached to teaching is expressed thusly:

> The aims of all those who educate and demand education is determined by the range of thought they bring to the subject. . . . If the teachers possess originality they will utilize all that comes to hand to provide stimulus and occupation for the objects of their care; if they have foresight, they exclude all which may be harmful to health, disposition, or manners.[26]

The most practical and most widely used aspect of Herbart's concepts of teaching consists of his analysis of teaching. He himself designated four steps or processes in teaching: "Clearness, association, system, method."[27] His leading disciples expanded and restated these four steps into five, based on his explanation of them:

1. Preparation - Analysis	Apperception of percepts
2. Presentation - Synthesis	
3. Association	Thought. The derivation and arrangement of rule, principle or class. From knowing to doing; use of motor powers[28]
4. Systematization	
5. Application	

Friedrich Froebel (1782-1852)

From a vantage point of more than a century later one may truly declare that Froebel next to John Dewey contributed more to the advancement of educational practice in the world than any other person of modern times. All of the research both in matters of formal schooling and in human growth of recent years confirms the utmost importance of the first few years of childhood in the development of the individual, intellectually, emotionally, socially, and physically. It was Froebel's advocacy of the kindergarten and his overwhelming efforts to establish and promote the movement, to formulate curriculum and programs for this age group, and to prepare teachers for professional work at this level of schooling that turned the attention of educators and prompted the nations of the Western world to the development of programs of schooling for the young child. His proposals, programs, and plans for, and work in actually establishing and operating the schools contribute much to the art and theory of teaching nd the role of teachers in the educational process.

Froebel sounded the clarion call more than a century ago that should characterize all efforts in developing quality programs of education today:

> Come, let us live with our children!
>
> "Come, let us live with our children" becomes, when manifested in action, an institution for fostering family life and for the cultivation of the life of the nation, and of mankind, through fostering the impulse to activity, investigation, and culture in man, in the child as a member of the family, of the nation, and of humanity; an institution for self-instruction, self-education, and self-cultivation of mankind. . . .[29]

Froebel, as was evident in the works of other philosophers of education of this period--Kant, Herbart, Pestalozzi, Rousseau, Spencer, Hegel, Goethe, emphasized the importance of the individual as a person in the schooling process and the necessity of cultivating and developing his inherent potentialities. Thus, his definition: "Education consists in leading man, as a thinking, intelligent being, growing into self-consciousness, to a pure and unsullied, conscious and free representation of the inner law of Divine Unity, and in teaching him ways and means thereto."[30]

In his basic treatise, *The Education of Man*, Froebel not only states his views on the aims and goals of education, but presents in detail appropriate principles and plans for education from "earliest childhood" through the "boyhood of man" to "man as a scholar or pupil." Throughout the whole period of development he pleads for a unity of things, a completeness that brings into harmony the internal life of the child and the external world.

The kindergarten "is to be a living whole, or, as it were, a tree in itself, as well as to provide means of employment and consequently of culture and instruction, founded on the relations of man to Nature and life."

His basic instruction to teachers is:

> The educator, the teacher, should make the individual and particular general, the general particular and individual, and elucidate both in life; he should make the external internal, and the internal external, and indicate the necessary unity of both; he should consider the finite in light of the infinite, and the infinite in the light of the finite, and harmonize both in life.[31]

His plan for education:

> As the preceding period of human development, the period of childhood, predominately that of life for the sake merely of living, for making the internal external, so the period of boyhood is predominately the period for learning, for making the external internal.[32]

At the more mature stage, Froebel believes that

> The school endeavors to render the scholar fully conscious of the nature and inner life of things and of himself, to teach him to know the inner relations of things to one another, to the human being, to the scholar, and to the living source and conscious unity of all things. . . .[33]

As to the role of the teacher he writes:

> It is by no means the acquisition of a certain number of miscellaneous external facts that constitutes the essential characteristic of the school, but only the living spirit that animates all things and in which all things move. Would that all whose business it is to direct and manage schools might carefully consider this.[34]

Johann Pestalozzi (1746-1827) and Jean Rousseau (1712-1778)

Pestalozzi and Rousseau, together, are the "fathers" of child-centered schooling. The most avid proponent today of any movement labelled "progressive education," "open education," "individually guided education," or "the child-centered school" would not state more clearly or more eloquently the case for the individualization of education than these two great leaders of educational reform in the eighteenth century. Any teacher or professor of education who wishes to develop a rationale and then a methodology for individualization of instuction may well start with their respective monumental works, How Gertrude Teaches Her Children and Emile. Note also that Power, in an excellent analysis of the views and concepts on education of these two great men, insists that a proper title for Pestalozzi's compiled works could be "Talks to Teachers."[35]

For Pestalozzi, the ultimate aim of education is

> . . . to qualify the human being to the free and full use of all of the faculties implanted by the Creator, -- and to direct all of these faculties towards the perfection of the whole being of man, that he may be enabled to act, in his peculiar station, as an instrument of that all-wise and almight Power, that has called him into life. . . .[36]

These two philosophers advocated that schooling should be in harmony with the natural development of the child. The purpose of education is to guide the unfolding of the natural capabilities and potentialities of the student; natural education is a highly personal affair, yet it is guided and directed by a skillful teacher to the end of enabling the person to attain complete self-development and good moral character. The instruction, both content and method, should be in complete harmony with the stages of development of human nature. The subjects taught should be selected in light of the child's interests and needs, learning activities appropriate for his or her state of development, and past experiences and natural interests.

The role of teacher is greatly enhanced and is a much more demanding and insightful one than characterized traditional education of the eighteenth century. Hence, the great importance Pestalozzi, who was the practitioner as well as theorist, attached to teacher training and the work of teachers in the schools. In fact, he clearly saw that the success of the school depended on the skill and ability of the teacher.

The starting point for instruction is the child's intuition and his/her natural inclinations; but learning is to be directed step by step, moving forward gradually as each step was mastered so that the unfolding of the child's development would be progressive, in line with future needs, and pointed to character. From the extensive writings of these two great pioneers of child-centered education, perhaps this one quotation best represents the point of view of naturalistic schooling:

> All instruction of man is then only the Art of helping Nature to develop in her own way; and this Art rests essentially on the relation and harmony between the

> impressions received by the child and the exact degree of his developed powers. It is also necessary in the impressions that are brought to the child by instruction, that there should be sequence, so that beginning and progress should keep pace with the beginning and progress of the powers to be developed in the child . . . the constituents of instruction must be separated according to the degree of the growing power of the child; and that in all matters of instruction, it is necessary to determine with the greatest accuracy which of these constitutents is fit for each age of the child, in order on the one hand, not to hold him back if he is ready; and on the other, not to load him and confuse him with anything for which he is not quite ready.[37]

Maria Montessori (1870-1952)

Montessori was both a theorist and a practitioner. Her schools were exemplars of her concepts of the educational process. Revival of interest in this country in the Montessori methods indicates the importance of her works.

Montessori believed that the perfection of man himself and of society could only be achieved through the proper education of the young, beginning at birth. But such education must be a process of natural unfolding, of helping the child educate himself: "All growth must come from a voluntary action of the child himself." Thus her views:

> If salvation and help are to come, it is from the child, for the child is the constructor of man, and so of society. . . . Education should no longer be mostly imparting of knowledge, but make take a new path, seeking the release of human potentialities. When should education begin? Our answer is that greatness of human personality begins at birth, an affirmation full of practical reality, however strikingly mystic. . . .
>
> Scientific observation then has established that education is not what the teacher gives; education is a natural process spontaneously carried out by the human individual, and is acquired not by listening to words but by experiences upon the environment.[38]

Montessori's methods are fully described in a number of her books, but briefly and inadequately stated they call for the setting of learning experience for the child by an adult at a very early age; the adult is always guiding the process, but not dictating nor often even directing it; an environment is "prepared" in the classroom that enables the child to engage in a variety of games and activities, but the teacher must know when it is appropriate for each individual child to engage in a particular exercise or activity, use a particular piece of equipment or a game, or manipulate things. Development of good work habits is also important, and this results from the child's activities with materials; development of self organization is important, and this, too, comes from properly directed activities in his early years; provide ample "liberty within limits."

The teacher is all important in the Montessori plan. She always devoted much of her time and energy to the training of teachers. Her training course had three aspects: philosophical and psychological foundations of the method and the theory of the teaching materials; the practical work with the teaching materials, which the teacher must understand fully so that he/she knows the sequence and the manner in which to present them to the students; and observation of the children in school, particularly to observe how the child teaches himself/herself in the free atmosphere of the schoool.

But underlying the program of teacher preparation was Montessori's insistence that a teacher must love children and study and observe each one individually so that a proper and valid program of experiences could be planned. Some of her thoughts on this matter include:

> It is my belief that the thing which we should cultivate in our teachers is more the spirit than the mechanical skill of the scientist. . . . The interest in humanity to which we wish to educate the teacher must be characterised by the intimate relationship between the observer and the individual to be observed. . . . But the love for man is a far more tender thing, and so simple that it is universal.[39]

Herbert Spencer (1820-1903)

Spencer was an early and avid advocate of utilitarianism in education. His oft-quoted dictum in his effort to answer his own question, "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth?" expresses aptly this position: "How to live?--this is the essential question for us. . . . To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging of any educational course is, to judge in what degree it discharges such function."[40] Further in developing his concept, Spencer delineated the "leading kinds of activity which constitute human life."

1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation;

2. Those activities which, by securing the necessaries of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation;

3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and discipline of offspring;

4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations;

5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of tastes and feelings.[41]

Spencer also had considerable to say about teaching methods. Much of his second essay in Education, "Intellectual Education," is devoted to this topic. Of course, he favored a naturalistic approach to instruction. He built on Pestalozzi's ideas of learning through activity, learning by doing, and in giving the child a great deal of freedom to choose his or her activities and modes of pursuing them. He especially recommended the use of observation, and the "systematic culture of the powers of observation."[42] He believed in the idea of a process of natural development of the child, and felt that instruction should adhere to the "methods of nature." "Education must conform to the natural process of mental evolution." For him "the acquirement of knowledge [should be] pleasurable rather than painful."

Spencer stresses the necessity of good teachers: "Bad teachers will fail even with the best methods." In fact, he stated that "The subject which involves all other subjects, and therefore the subject in which the education of everyone should culminate, is the Theory and Practice of Education."[43] He felt that good teaching depends on a philosophical basis: "The true education is practicable only to the true philosopher." He continued: "To pursue a rational course throughout the entire range of studies, asks an amount of judgment, of invention, of intellectual sympathy, of analytical faculty, which we shall never see applied to it while the tutorial office is held in such small esteem."[44] The essay includes six listed principles of teaching, which emphasize instruction that proceeds from the simple to the complex, and from the concrete to the abstract, from the empirical to the rational, is in accord with the education of mankind historically, and results in pleasure for the learner.

American Scholars and Leaders

Although a number of American scholars, statesmen, and writers who lived during the colonial period and the early years of nationhood, such as Franklin, Jefferson, and Rush, had important things to say about education and schooling, attention here will be given to great educational leaders of the nineteenth century: Horace Mann, Ralph Waldo Emerson, DeWitt Clinton, Henry Barnard, Charles Eliot, and Nicholas Murray Butler.

Horace Mann (1796-1859)

Commonly designated as the "Father of the American Common School System," Mann contributed greatly to the advancement of schooling in this country in the mid-nineteenth century period. His faith in the common man and in education as a necessary aspect of man's development is best epitomized by his famous farewell statement to the graduating class at Antioch College: "Be ashamed to die until you have won some victory for humanity." In his long flowery lectures and writings on education, he views schooling as the means by which mankind attains the virtues desirable in a democratic society:

> The great object of the schools . . . is to exercise and to strengthen the minds of the children; to save them from vicious associations and depraved habits; to lead them to perfection and the love of truth in the exact sciences; to give them a delight in exploring the vast world of natural history; . . . and thus to prepare them, as far as by any human means they can be prepared, to bring a clearer and stronger mind and less selfish and impure affections, a more ardent love of man, . . . to the decision of those momentous questions of time and eternity which in the last resort each man must not only decide for himself, but must abide by the consequences of his decisions.[45]

He expounded at great length on the contributions of education to the development of the traits and skills needed by people in their daily lives and, particularly, in carrying on the duties of citizenship in a democracy.[46]

The attitude towards teachers and their competencies is pointedly stated in Mann's first annual report in which he quotes the law in effect in Massachusetts at that time (1837):

> It shall be the duty of all instructors of youth to exert their best endeavors to impress on the minds of children and youth, committed to their care and instruction, the principles of piety, justice, and a sacred regard to truth, love to their country, humanity, and universal benevolence, sobriety, industry, and frugality, chastity, moderation, and temperance, and those other virtues, which are the ornament of human society, and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded. . . .[47]

Mann devoted much attention to the process of teaching and to the preparation of teachers. It would be apparent that he envisioned a teacher as a person who could carry out all of the responsibilities depicted for education in the quotations above. For five years of his term as Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education he annually toured each county of the state to deliver a lengthy, tedious lecture to a conference of teachers, as required by law. He harangued them on their duties and the characteristics of good teaching, particularly spending much time on the matter of discipline, but also elaborating at length on how teachers should develop the characteristics described above.48 His 12 Annual Reports to the Massachusetts Board of Education also contain a great deal of material on teaching and the qualifications needed by teachers.

Mann and James G. Carter were responsible for the establishment of the first normal school for training teachers in this country (1839).49 He said: "I believe Normal Schools to be a new instrumentality in the advancement of the race. I believe that, without them, Free Schools themselves would be shorn of their strength and healing power, and would at length become mere charity schools, and thus die out in fact and form."50

In his Annual Report for 1838, Mann upbraided the school committees of the towns for not complying with a state law that required them "to obtain evidence of the good moral character of all instructors, and to ascertain by personal examination their literary qualifications and capacity for government of the Schools." Thus, the competency of a teacher was to be determined by the board of education before he/she entered on his/her duties in the schools of the state. In many of his reports and lectures Mann spelled out in some detail his views on the qualities needed by teachers.

Here, a listing of "a few of the qualifications essential to those who undertake the momentous task of training the children of the State" in his Fourth Annual Report (1940) are given:

> 1st. One requisite is a knowledge of Common-school studies. Teachers should have a perfect knowledge of the rudimental branches which are required by law to be taught in our schools.
>
> 2nd. The next principal qualification in a teacher is the art of teaching. . . . The ability to acquire, and the ability to impart, are wholly different talents.
>
> 3rd. Experience has also proved that there is no necessary connection between literary competency, aptness to teach, and the power to manage and govern a school successfully. They are independent qualifications; yet a marked deficiency in any one of the three renders the others nearly valueless.
>
> 4th. In two words the statute opens to all teachers an extensive field of duty, by ordaining that all the youth in the schools shall be taught "good behavior."
>
> 5th. On the indispensable, all-controlling requisite of moral character . . . the school committees are sentinels

> stationed at the door of every schoolhouse in the State to see that no teacher ever crosses its threshold who is not clothed, from the crown of his head to the sole of his foot, in garments of virtue.[51]

In his writings in the Common School Journal, of which he served as editor during the ten years of its publication (1838-1848), Mann often discussed the work of teachers, their training, and qualifications. Note this excerpt from the 1839 Journal on the competencies teachers should possess:

> Am I competent to its [teaching] skillful performance? Have I a clear, distinct, living conception of what a man, formed in the image of God, should be; of the various excellences, he should possess; of the innumerable vices and weaknesses, from which he should be free; and can I take the uncultivated souls of children and form them into such men? Do I know enough of the nature of the human faculties, in their number and variety, to determine in what order of precedence or priority they should be ranged, so that in any contest between rival faculties, the higher and the better shall not be sacrificed to the lower;--do I know to what point each one of the faculties should grow, so that the character may not be improvished by deficiency, and at what point each one should stop, so as not to become rank and disproportionate--and do I know by what processes and means such a wonderful work is to be accomplished?[52]

Oh! for the good old days.

Henry Barnard (1811-1900)

Henry Barnard, whose early career paralleled that of Horace Mann, both serving at the same time as secretaries of their respective state board of education--Connecticut and Massachusetts, exercised tremendous influence on education in this country for more than a half century. He not only was secretary (and for an interim also in the same type position in Rhode Island), editor of the renowned American Journal of Education--one authority designates him as "the creator of American educational literature," a college and university president, and the first U.S. Commissioner of Education (1967-1870), but as a national and international spokesman for education, Barnard must be regarded as one of the most eminent of American Educators.

Barnard and Mann, moreover, held quite comparable conceptions of the purposes of the school, the nature and scope of the curriculum, and the role and qualifications of teachers. Barnard wrote:

> If the ends of education were regarded, something more would be aimed at than to enable a child to read, write,

> and cypher, or to attain to any degree of mere knowledge. As far as the individual is concerned, it would be to secure the highest degree of health, powers of accurate observation, and clear reflection, and noble feelings.[53]

Education, Barnard believed, is to prepare the young to be good citizens, lead a moral and exemplary life, be industrious, and contribute to the improvement of society. Schooling should have its practical aspects as well as the moral and character-building qualities. Teachers were advised to make use of the natural things around them, and to relate instruction to the everyday experiences of the student.

As to the qualifications of teachers, Barnard insisted that "teachers should be selected in reference, not only to the ordinary duties required of all teachers in the schoolroom, but for their ability to exert a social influence of the right character." He then listed a number of competencies teachers should possess, particularly admonishing them to "take a decided interest in everything that relates to the moral and intellectual improvement of the people."[54]

Barnard was a strong advocate of teacher training, and devoted much of his professional activities to this matter. He pleaded:

> I would urgently but respectfully repeat, let something be done to provide an adequate supply of well qualified teachers for our common schools. Without them I have no expectation that there will be any material improvement in the quality and amount of education given in them.[55]

As did Mann, he organized teacher institutes and conferences, and promoted the organization of societies of teachers through which they could exchange ideas and learn better methods of instruction. He decried the excessive turnover among teachers, and the low salaries. But his most significant efforts were in the promotion and establishment of normal schools for the training of teachers. Under his leadership, Connecticut and Rhode Island joined Massachusetts in the movement; and throughout his long career he continued to work for the improvement of programs for teacher education.

Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882)

The movement known as Transcendentalism was a powerful influence in American thought in the nineteenth century, so a brief citation from one of its leading spokesman, Ralph Waldo Emerson, is in order. The parallelism between much of Mann's writings on the purposes and aims of education and Emerson's two essays on the subject is evident. Both had lofty conceptions of the role of education in the achievement of perfectability by man, appealing for the development of truly cultured persons.

Emerson wrote that

> The great object of Education should be commensurate with the object of life. It should be a moral one; to teach self-trust; to inspire the youthful man with an interest in himself; with a curiosity touching his own nature; to acquaint him with the resources of his mind, and to teach him that there is all his strength, and to inflame him with piety towards the Great Mind in which he lives.[56]

After stating at length why he "likes boys," and listing their boyish traits, Emerson believed that

> . . . the secret of Education lies in respecting the pupil. It is not for you to choose what he shall know, what he shall do. It is chosen and foreordained, and he only holds the key to his own secret. By your tampering and thwarting and too much governing he may be hindered from his own end and kept out of his own. Respect the child. Wait and see the new product of Nature. Nature loves analogies, but not repetitions. Respect the child. Be not too much his parent. Trespass not on the solitude.[57]

He closes the essay with some home-spun advice to teachers.

> I assume that you will keep the grammar, reading, writing and arithmetic in order; 'tis easy and of course you will. But smuggle in a little contraband wit, fancy, imagination, thought. If you have a taste which you have suppressed because it is not shared by those about you, tell them that. . . . If a child happens to show that he knows any fact about astronomy, or plants, or birds, or rocks, of history, that interests him and you, hush all the classes and encourage him to tell it so that all may hear. Then you have made your school-room like the world. Of course you will insist on modesty in the children, and respect to their teachers, but if the boy stops you in your speech, cries out that you are wrong and sets you right, hug him.[58]

Emerson then lays down this concept of a teacher:

> By simple living, by an illimitable soul, you inspire, you correct, you instruct, you raise, you embellish all. By your own act you teach the beholder how to do the practicable. According to the depth from which you draw your life, such as the depth not only of your strenuous effort, but of your manners and presence.[59]

De Witt Clinton (1769-1828)

De Witt Clinton, governor of New York and a great political leader in that state during the first part of the nineteenth century, was also a strong advocate of public education and took a very active role in developing our system of schools and programs for the training of teachers. In common with Jefferson and many other leading statesmen of his day, he regarded education as the means whereby mankind achieved its highest level of fulfillment, piety and morality. Furthermore, he considered education essential for the development of a republican form of government.

Some excerpts from his addresses and writings give his point of view:

> The first duty of a state is to render its citizens virtuous by intellectual instruction and moral discipline, by enlightening their minds, purifying their hearts and teaching them their rights and obligations. . . .

* * *

> Upon education we must therefore rely for the purity, the preservation and the perpetuation of republican government. . . .

* * *

> The first duty of government and the surest evidence of good government is the encouragement of education. A general diffusion of knowledge is the precursor and protector of republican institutions.[60]

* * *

Clinton was an advocate of teacher training. A full decade or more before Horace Mann's efforts to establish a normal training school in Massachusetts, he was recommending the establishment of teacher training institutions in New York State, and presented a plan in 1828 for the establishment of normal training schools throughout the state. Some of his views are indicated by these quotations:

> The education of youth is an important trust, and an honorable vocation, but it is often committed to unskillful hands.

* * *

> The vocation of the teacher in his influence on the characters and destinies of the rising and all future generations has either not been fully understood or

> duly estimated. It is or ought to be ranked among the learned professions.

* * *

> Too many (teachers) are destitute of the requisite qualifications and perhaps no inconsiderable number are unable to teach beyond rudimental instruction. . . . ought the mind and the morals of the rising and perhaps the destinies of all future generations to be entrusted to the guardianship of incompetence (1827).

* * *

> I, therefore, recommend a seminary for the education of teachers. . . . A compliance with this recommendation will have a benign influence on individual happiness and social prosperity (1826).[61]

But Clinton's recommendation for the founding of such a teacher training institution was not carried to fruition by the legislature until 1844. In the meantime a number of the academies, as noted later, organized teacher training departments and the legislature sanctioned such action in 1835.

Charles W. Eliot (1834-1926)

The renowned president of Harvard University for many years (1869 to 1909), Charles Eliot was undoubtedly the outstanding leader in educational thought during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. His very active role in the National Education Association and his many addresses on education both at the conventions of that group and elsewhere, his many other essays and speeches, his work as chairman of the Committee of Ten, his leadership at his own institution in implementing reforms, and his constant efforts in many ways to advance the cause of public education in this country justify such recognition in any examination of the antecedents of present-day developments in teacher education.

For Eliot the primary function of education was to develop each person to his full potential, with emphasis on character, knowledge, senstivity to natural things, rational judgment, self-control, keen powers of observation, and joy through achievements. Some excerpts illustrate his views:

> It is for the interest of society, as well as the individual, that every individual child's peculiar gifts and powers should be developed and trained to the highest degree (1892).[62]

* * *

> Public Education should mean the systematic training of all children for the duties of life; and it seems as if this systematic training could work almost a revolution in human society in two or three generations. . . . It seems to provide directly for a general increase of power to reason and, therefore, of actual reasonableness in conduct of life (1892)[63]

* * *

> These, then, are the four things in which the individual youth should be thoroughly trained, if his judgment and reasoning power are to be systematically developed: observing accurately; recording correctly; comparing, grouping, and inferring justly; and expressing cogently the results of these mental operations (1892).[64]

* * *

> Industry, persistence, veracity in work and act, gentleness, and disinterestedness should be made to thrive and blossom during school life in hearts of the children. . . . (1897)[65]

In two significant addresses delivered in his later years, Eliot describes in considerable detail his concepts of an educated person. In his "Education for Efficiency" he states these objectives for education:

> The training of the bodily senses and the care of the body.
>
> The imparting of the habit of quick and concentrated attention.
>
> Induce young people to think.
>
> The cultivation of the critical discernment of beauty and excellence in things and in words and thoughts, in nature and in human nature.
>
> Cultivate incessantly the judicial faculty for the wise enjoyment of liberty.
>
> The implanting of the love of truth.
>
> Supply every pupil with the motive power of some enthusiasm or devotion.[66]

In his address on the cultivated man, which constituted his presidential address to the NEA convention in 1903, Eliot lists four major characteristics of an educated person:

> Character.
>
> Ability to express himself by tongues or pen with some accuracy and elegance.
>
> Acquaintance with some part of the store of knowledge.
>
> Training of the constructive imagination.[67]

Although he addressed teachers and school administrators frequently, served as president of the National Education Association in 1902-1903, and wrote extensively on education, Eliot had little to say on teaching, the qualifications of teachers, and teaching competencies. We are compelled to infer these things quite largely from his writings on the nature of education itself. It is obvious that he sought a democratically oriented classroom as opposed to one with authoritarian atmosphere, and one in which reason and self-control would prevail, pupils would find joy in achievement, and have ample opportunity through experience to develop their senses and powers of observation. A generation later, he, indeed, would have been a genuine "progressive" educator.

Several statements he made on teaching are important:

> . . . there has been too much reliance on the principle of authority, too little on the progressive and persistent appeal to reason. . . . the habit of obedience to authority and of the passive reception of imposed opinions is almost inconsistent with an effective development of reasoning power and of an independence of thought.[68]

In concluding his address on "The Cultivated Man" Eliot had these words of advice for teachers:

> Let us as teachers accept no single element or kind of culture as the one essential; let us remember that the best fruits of real culture are an open mind, broad sympathies, and respect for all the diverse achievements of the human intellect at whatever stage of development they may actually be.[69]

Much earlier in his career (1879) he addressed the Massachusetts Teachers Association and pleaded for three things: careful selection of teachers by examination and probation; ultimate appointment without limitation of time (tenure); and a system of retiring annuities. Ponder on these things in terms of 1879, not 1976. Selection, he said, should be based on examinations on the "subjects taught in the schools, and such others as may best exhibit the capacities of the candidates." Tenure would be based on three probationary periods: the first of one year, the second up to three years, and the last for five or six years.[70]

Nicholas Murray Butler (1862-1947)

A contemporary of Eliot, and a close associate in their common professional activities in the National Education Association, the College Entrance Examination Board and other organizations, and, likewise, a president of the National Education Association (1894-1895), Butler shared much the same views with Eliot on the importance of education and on the need for training of teachers. He placed great emphasis on knowledge, the development of the powers of the mind, intellectualism, the use of reason, and matters of the spirit, and played down the practical and training aspects of schooling, but he, like, Eliot, placed great confidence in scientific knowledge and use of scientific methods.

He urged that teacher education be based on scientific study, particularly making use of psychology. Some excerpts show his concerns:

> Here and there a secondary school-master, and here and there a college president or professor, takes a genuine and intelligent interest in education for its own sake; but the vast majority know nothing of it, and are but little affected by it. They are conent to accumulate what they are pleased to term "experience" . . . . The one qualification most to be feared in a teacher, and the one to be most carefully inquired into, is this same "experience" when it stands alone. I am profoundly distrustful of it. . . . The scientific teacher, the theorist, on the contrary, asks what manner of phenomena these are that are before him, what are their inner relations, and the principles on which they are based. This, of course, is the first great step, taken by all scientific method, toward a knowledge of causes (1895).[71]

* * *

> Finally, there is bad teaching, without mention of which no paper on education is quite complete. As it is practially impossible to secure the dismissal from public-school positions of hard-working and deserving young women "simply because they cannot teach," we are likely to have this chief cause of waste with us for another century or while public opinion is learning what education really means (1898).[72]

In his address to the NEA convention at Minneapolis in 1902, Butler pursued this theme of waste in education:

> . . . . This undoubted waste is due to two easily ascertained causes. First, lack of sufficient scholarship on the part of the teacher; and, second the growing tendency to exaggerate the importance of method in teaching.

> Lack of scholarship is always wasteful in teaching, for the reason that it takes a long time to teach what you do not know. . . . Second, I hold that the tendency of the last twenty-five years to exaggerate the importance of method in teaching has resulted in holding back students who are eager and ready to go forward with the subject matter. . . . My contention is that we must give up all this exaggeration of method, and come back to the ideal teacher's training, namely, that system of training which puts a new emphasis on scholarship, new emphasis on educational principles, new emphasis on the teaching spirit, and which subordinates methods to all three of these.[73]

Footnotes

[1] An excellent source is Alexander Sesonske and Noel Fleming, (eds.), Plato's Meno: Text and Criticisms (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1965), pp. 5-37.

[2] B. Jowett, The Dialogues of Plato, Vol. 1 (4th ed.; London: Oxford University Press, 1953), pp. 457-459 (100 a,c, 101 d-e).

[3] Laszlo Versenyi, Socratic Humanism (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1963), pp. 110-119 passim. See also an excellent discussion of Socratic methods by Frederick A. G. Beck, Greek Education: 450-350 B.C. (London: Methuen and Company, Ltd., 1964), pp. 188-198.

[4] Versenyi, p. 122.

[5] Plato, Republic, Book II, 376 c, e (Available in Edith Hamilton and Huntington Cairns (eds.), The Collected Dialogues of Plato (New York: Pantheon Books, 1961), p. 623.

[6] Hamilton and Cairns, p. 624 (377 b, c).

[7] Hamilton and Cairns, p. 322 (325 e).

[8] Hamilton and Cairns, p. 323 (326 e).

[9] Hamilton and Cairns, p. 324 (328 a).

[10] Hamilton and Cairns, p. 768 (536 e, 537 a).

[11] Hamilton and Cairns, p. 1344 (765 e, 766 b).

[12] Christian O. Weber, Basic Philosophies of Education (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960), pp. 96-97. For a more inclusive treatment of Plato's plans for education and his proposals about teaching methods see Beck, Greek Education: 450-350 B.C., pp. 199-243.

[13] William D. Frankena provides an excellent brief analysis of Aristotle's views on education in Three Historical Philosophies of Education: Aristotle, Kant, Dewey (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1965), pp. 15-78.

[14] Aristotle, *Ethics*, Book X (Bekker's enumeration 1179 b). Quoted from C. I. Litzinger (Trans.), *St. Thomas Aquinas, Commentary on the Nicomachean Ethics* (Chicago: Henry Regnery Company, 1964), Vol. II, pp. 927-928.

[15] For a good summary of Kant's writings on education see Frankena, *Three Historical Philosophies of Education*, pp. 79-134.

[16] Friedrich T. Rink, "Immanuel Kant's Lecture-Notes on Pedagogy," in Edward F. Buchner, *The Educational Theory of Immanuel Kant* (Philaelphia: J. P. Lippincott Company, 1904), pp. 109, 116, 118.

[17] Rink, p. 116.

[18] Rink, pp. 123, 125.

[19] Rink, p. 131.

[20] Rink, p. 132.

[21] Kant presents a long discourse on moral education and the methods of developing character and morals among the young that would constitute good pedagogical concepts today. See Rink, pp. 185-221.

[22] Johann F. Herbart, *The Science of Education and On the Aesthetic Revelation of the World as the Chief Work of Education*, trans. by Henry M. and Emmie Felkin (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1891), p. 57.

[23] Johann F. Herbart, *Letters and Lectures on Education*, trans. by Henry M. and Emmie Felkin (Syracuse, N.Y.: C. W. Bardeen Company, 1898), p. 63.

[24] Edward J. Power, *Evolution of Educational Doctrine: Major Educational Theorists of the Western World* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969), pp. 317-319. For Herbart's presentations of these aspects of morality see his *Science of Education*, pp. 252-267.

[25] Herbart, *Science of Education*, pp. 84, 109.

[26] Herbart, *Science of Education*, p. 78.

[27] Johann F. Herbart, *Outlines of Educational Doctrine*, trans. by Alexis F. Lange (New York: Macmillan Company, 1913), pp, 52-59.

[28] Herbart, *Outlines of Educational Doctrine*, p. 59.

[29] Friedrich Froebel, *Pedagogics of the Kindergarten*, trans. by Josephine Jarvis (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1914, originally published in 1861), pp. 3, 6.

[30] Friedrich Froebel, *The Education of Man*, trans. by W. N. Hailmann (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1887), p. 2.

[31] Froebel, *The Education of Man*, pp. 15-16.

[32] Froebel, *The Education of Man*, p. 94.

[33] Froebel, *The Education of Man*, p. 128.

[34] Froebel, *The Education of Man*, p. 129.

[35] Power, *Evolution of Educational Doctrine: Major Educational Theorists of the Western World*, p. 272.

[36] Johann H. Pestalozzi, *Letters on Early Education Addressed to J. P. Greaves* (London: Sherwood, Gilbert, and Piper, 1827, No. 32, April 25, 1819), p. 140.

[37] Johann H. Pestaloozi, *How Gertrude Teaches Her Children*, trans. by Lucy E. Holland and Frances C. Turner (Syracuse, N.Y.: C. W. Bardeen, 1898), pp. 57-58.

[38] Maria Montessori, *Education for a New World* (Thiruvanmiyur, Madras, India: Kalakshetra Publications, 1946), pp. 1-31.

[39] Maria Montessori, *The Montessori Method* reprinted with an introduction by J. McVicker Hunt (New York: Snocken Books, 1964), pp. 9-13. For further reading on the Montessori plan see Maria Montessori, *Spontaneous Activity in Education*, trans, by Forence Simmonds (New York: Schocken Books, 1965, reprinted from 1917 publication).

[40] Herbert Spencer, *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1861), pp. 30-31.

[41] Spencer, p. 32.

[42] Spencer, p. 106.

[43] Spencer, p. 163.

[44] Spencer, p. 116.

[45] Joy Elmer Morgan, Horace Mann: His Ideas and Ideals (Washington, D.C.: National Home Library Foundation, 1936), pp. 133-134. (Quoted from Thoughts from the Writings of Horace Mann.)

[46] See especially, Lectures I, III, and IV in Life and Works of Horace Mann, Vo. II (Boston: Lee and Shepard, Publishers, 1891).

[47] Horace Mann, "First Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education, 1837," in Life and Works of Horace Mann, Vol, II, p. 421.

[48] See especially Lecture No. VII.

[49] See Lecture II, pp. 101-106, and "Remarks at the Dedication of the Bridgewater State Normal Schoolhouse," in Horace Mann on the Crisis in Education, ed. Louis Filler (Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1965), pp. 162-168.

[50] Filler, p. 163.

[51] Horace Mann, "Report for 1840," in Life and Works of Horace Mann, Vol. III, pp. 58-71.

[52] Horace Mann, "To Teachers," in Life and Works of Horace Mann, Vol. V, pp. 184-185.

[53] Quoted from John S. Brubacher (ed.), Henry Barnard on Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1931), p. 70.

[54] Brubacher, p. 52.

[55] Henry Barnard, "First Annual Report as Secretary to the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools in Connecticut, 1839," Quoted from Brubacher, p. 173.

[56] Ralph Waldo Emerson, "Education," in Education, An Essay and Other Selections, ed. Henry Suzzalo (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909), p. 11.

[57] Emerson, p. 19.

[58] Emerson, pp. 33-34.

[59] Emerson, p. 34.

[60] Quoted from Edward A. Kilpatrick, *The Educational Views and Influence of De Witt Clinton* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1911, Reprinted by Arno Press and New York Times, 1969), pp. 65, 48, 49.

[61] Kilpatrick, pp. 50, 51.

[62] Charles W. Eliot, "Shortening and Enriching the Grammar School Course," Quoted from Edward A. Krug, *Charles W. Eliot and Popular Education* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1961), p. 54.

[63] Charles W. Eliot, "Wherein Public Education Has Failed," in Krug, pp. 67-68.

[64] Eliot, "Wherein Public Education Has Failed," in Krug, p. 72.

[65] Charles W. Eliot, "The Function of Education in Democratic Society," in Krug, p. 107.

[66] Charles W. Eliot, *Education for Efficiency and the New Definition of the Cultivated Man* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909), pp. 6-29.

[67] Eliot, *Education for Efficiency and the New Definition of the Cultivated Man*, pp. 40-55; Also in National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Forty-Second Annual Meeting* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1903), pp. 46-54.

[68] Eliot, "Wherein Popular Education Has Failed," in Krug, *Charles W. Eliot and Popular Education*, p. 78.

[69] Eliot, *Education for Efficiency and the New Definition of the Cultivated Man*, p. 55.

[70] Charles W. Eliot, "Teachers' Tenure of Office," in *Educational Reform: Essays and Addresses* (New York: The Century Company, 1398, Reprinted by the Arno Press and New York Times, 1969), pp. 49-58.

[71] Nicholas Murray Butler, "Is There A New Education?" in *The Meaning of Education: Contributions to a Philosophy of Education* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915), pp. 80-81.

[72] Nicholas Murray Butler, "Waste in Education," in *The Meaning of Education*, p. 158.

[73] Nicholas Murray Butler, "Some Pressing Problems," in National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Forty-first Annual Meeting* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1902), pp. 68-70.

CHAPTER 3

ANTECEDENT DEVELOPMENTS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

In analyzing the antecedents of competency-based teacher education programs, it is appropriate in this chapter to describe briefly the nature and practice of teacher education in this country prior to the twentieth century. Several excellent sources are available for this purpose.[1]

Barnard points out that formal seminaries, later designated as normal schools, for the preparation of teachers were established in what is now Germany in the early 1700s. He states that about thirty were in operation at the beginning of the nineteenth century; in his study, published in 1851, he reports 264 normal schools in Europe. Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel had all given much attention to and developed programs for the preparation of teachers to work in their respective schools and model programs.

In this country, little attention was given to teacher training until the nineteenth century. Mann and Barnard took up the cause, and were incessant and vociferous advocates of programs and means for improvement of teaching itself. Other active leaders in the movement included William Russell,[2] Thomas H. Gallaudet, James G. Carter, William E. Channing, and Calvin E. Stowe.[3]

The first institutions to provide any type of teacher education were private academies or seminaries. A few of them,recognizing that some of their students took positions as teachers in elementary schools, organized a special department for those students interested in entering the profession. Instruction was offered in the common subjects taught in elementary schools and rudimentary lectures in the art of teaching constituted the professional course.[4]

But Mann called for a more formal program of training, often decrying the low state of the art, and the very poor instruction being provided in the schools of Massachusetts. Based on Carter's fervent pleas, and later under Mann's leadership in the legislature, Massachussetts in 1838 authorized the establishment of the first normal schools in America. Three were authorized; two were opened in 1839 and the third one in 1840. Connecticut and Rhode Island, under the leadership of Barnard, and New York at the urging of De Witt Clinton, soon joined the movement, and it then spread rather rapidly to other states. Frazier identified 15 state normal schools in existence in 1865, plus three quasi public ones in Pennsylvania.[5]

Following the Civil War, teacher education institutions of one kind or another increased rapidly. In 1900, 125 state normal schools reported to the U. S. Commissioner of Education.[6] But a number of other types of institutions also flourished. A large portion of the academies, especially in New England and the Middle Atlantic states, offered a professional course in the principles of teaching. As the public high school supplanted the academies after the Civil War, they, too, often offered a "normal training" course as an elective program. In fact, these normal training high schools furnished the large portion of the teachers for the rural and small village elementary schools in the Great Plains area of the nation, and to a lesser extent in other areas. The course consisted of an intensive review of the basic school subjects, a course in principles of teaching, and some limited practice and observation in an elementary school.

During the course of the century, school systems in many of the large cities established their own "city normal schools" or some type of special training classes for teachers. Later, those programs that survived became city teachers colleges. Philadelphia, for example, set up a "model" school in 1818 to train teachers for its Lancasterian program of teaching, but it did not survive the elimination of that mode of teaching. In the early decades of the twentieth century the school systems in Chicago, St. Louis, Washington, D.C., and others largely depended on their own teachers colleges for staff members at the elementary level. In some states, such as Wisconsin, a local (county or area) normal school was authorized.

Private normal schools also flourished in some states. They simply were competitors of the state schools and helped to serve a portion of the young people of a state.

Collegiate institutions gave little attention to professional training of teachers until late in the century. Some as early as the Civil War period in a sporadic and demeaning manner devoted some efforts to the matter, but it was always as a separate "preparatory" department of the institution. Later some of them offered a course or two in pedagogy or philosophy of education for college credit. It was not until the efforts of John Dewey, Francis W. Parker, Nicholas Murray Butler, James Russell and others late in the 1800s that colleges and universities devoted serious attention to the preparation of teachers. By the early 1900s many of the normal schools had been accorded collegiate standing and were awarding baccalaureate degrees, and a new institution, the teachers college, was being rapidly developed throughout the country,

Professional preparation of teachers was also promoted by less formal agencies, such as teacher's institutes, reading circles, extension lectures (Horace Mann's renowned Lectures in the 1830s and 40s are examples), summer institutes, and meetings of local teachers' organizations. Through Mann's and Barnard's efforts professional literature also became available, and it wielded great influence.

As is evident, the normal school dominated what teacher education programs existed in the nineteenth century, and as such, they set the pattern for professional training throughout the nineteenth century. It was only later that such outstanding theorists and leaders as Dewey, Parker, Harris, and Russell developed new concepts and new approaches to teaching, and hence to preparatory programs for teachers. However, it should be recognized that even late in the nineteenth century, only a small portion of teachers in the schools of this country had had formal professional training in the art of teaching.[7] The normal school, although a tremendous step forward at the time, was actually a very inadequate professional agency. In its early years most students were only graduates of the elementary school itself, or at best of an academy or high school; they usually remained only a year or less in the program, and in the profession only a year or two longer. Applicants for admission had to pass (whatever that meant) an examination on the basic schools subjects, be of good moral character, and declare an intent to teach. Minimum age was 16 years for women, and 17 for men.

The program of preparation in the early years of the development of normal schools consisted of reviews--often actually initial learning--of the subject matter of the school subjects, including spelling, reading, writing, drawing, arithmetic, physiology, geography, and grammar, and courses in algebra, geometry, bookkeeping, navigation, natural philosophy (science), and history. Attention was also given to morals and piety. The art of teaching was covered in one course, although attention was also given in the review of each subject to methods of teaching.

Decades later, as Frazier points out in a survey of offerings in nine selected state normal schools in 1870 and 1890, a wide range of professional courses was offered. A course on methods for teaching each of the principal subjects was commonly offered; much attention was devoted to the art and science of teaching, school management, psychology, history of education, and moral and mental philosophy. Moreover, by the turn of the century, the better of the normal schools were offering up to a four-year course, and included much work in the academic subject fields.[8]

Practice in teaching, observation, practice lessons and the like were required; most of the institutions had a "model school" or adjunct elementary school(s) in which such practical experience could be gained.

This, then, in general was the pattern of professional education of teachers in the nineteenth century. As for teachers in the secondary schools, little professional preparation was provided, or required. Some elected to attend a normal school; later as these institutions extended their programs and added courses in the disciplines, a substantial portion of secondary teachers attended a normal school. Others enrolled for a course or two in pedagogy. Some collegiate institutions even established a "model" school for practical experiences of those interested.

For the purposes of this study, a significant point to be noted is the practical nature of the programs provided by the normal schools--the dominant professional institution of the nineteenth century. The whole emphasis was on the teaching methods to be employed in each subject field, and the practice in using these methods in the student teaching experiences, and, later, in the classroom.[9] A vivid description of the practicalness of the training and of a mid-nineteenth century professional training program devoted specifically to the development of overt, identifiable competencies is the "Object Teaching" program at Oswego, New York, State Normal and Training School. It was established in 1861 to train teachers for the innovative programs of elementary education being developed in the schools of that city, but the nature and effectiveness of its program in using the new objects teaching approach to schooling brought national and international acclaim and for a quarter of a century its training program set a pattern for much of the professional program in normal schools in this country.[10] The competency-based nature of the training program is stated by E. A. Sheldon, the Director of the institution:

> The first effort on the part of teachers should be to study principles, and then the mode of applying them. . . . the whole aim and effort shall be to impart a practical knowledge of the science of education and the art of applying it. In these schools (normal schools) should be exhibited the highest excellence in the art of teaching. There should also be schools of practice where the students shall have abundant opportunity for applying the instruction they receive, and the methods they observe.[11]

Dearborn, in his interesting and comprehensive study of the Oswego program, makes this observation on the influence of the Movement on the development of teaching methods in American schools:

> With its sheer simplicity, its ready applicability, and its emphasis upon the natural development of childhood in a natural environment, the Oswego plan of object teaching stands as a great stimulating movement in the progress of educational methods, in our national evolution of elementary education.[12]

Collegiate institutions, other than the desultory efforts in a few to provide a very inadequate course or two in teaching at a non-collegiate, "preparatory" level, did not initiate formal collegiate level programs in pedagogy until late in the century. Hinsdale states that the first such effort was made at the University of Michigan in 1879. Teachers College in New York was founded in 1889, and it formally associated with Columbia University in 1898. New York University, Clark University, University of Chicago, University of Wisconsin, Indiana University and others established programs in pedagogy late in the nineteenth century.[13] But such programs were very limited in scope, consisting largely of one or more lecture courses in history of education, psychology, methods of teaching and classroom management. Seldom was any practical experience or even observation provided candidates.[14]

However, by the last decade of the nineteenth century, sharp criticism of the normal schools and of teacher preparatory programs in general or the absence of them at all had already begun to appear in increasing volume. One has only to read the reports of the meetings of the NEA, particularly of the Normal Department of the association, but also on occasion of other division meetings, to sense the discontent with teacher education at this point in educational history. We have already noted the pleas of Eliot and Butler for better programs of teacher education. Reams of addresses, reports of discussions, essays, and the like point out these defects: the lack of any professional training on the part of many beginning teachers; the limited amount of the work in formal teacher education programs by others; the low standards for admission to normal schools; the inadequacies and low quality of the courses and of instruction itself; and the low level of scholarship prevalent in most teacher education institutions.

One looking back now after 75 additional years devoted to the professional education of teachers is amazed at the utmost confidence most writers of that period had in the value of psychology as preparation for teaching. The literature of the period is replete with articles, plans, arguments, surveys, and the like on the place of psychology in teacher education. Also, the Culture-Epoch theory was rampant as a basis for curriculum planning and teaching. Toward the end of the century, leaders, such as Eliot, Butler, the Herbartians (Charles A. McMurry, Frank McMurry, Charles DeGarmo), insisted that the application of scientific methods, and the study of science and natural history themselves would provide the basis for improvement of the teaching process, and for education itself to move into a golden age. Now let us move to the early part of the twentieth century to see what happened.

Footnotes

[1] See especially, Henry Barnard, *Normal Schools and Other Institutions, Agencies, and Means Designed for the Professional Education of Teachers*, Vol. 1, *United States and British Provinces*; Vol. 2, *Europe* (Hartford, Conn.: Case, Tiffany, and Company, 1851); Benjamin W. Frazier, "History of the Professional Education of Teachers in the United States," *Special Survey Studies*, Part I, Vol. 5, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Bulletin 1933, No. 10, U.S. Office of Education (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1935); George D. Strayer, "Teachers-- Training of," in *Cyclopedia of Education*, Vol. 5, ed. Paul Monroe (New York: Macmillan Company, 1914), pp. 515-520; B. A. Hinsdale, *The Training of Teachers*, Monograph No. 8, *Monographs on Education in the United States*, ed. Nicholas Murray Butler (Albany: J. B. Lyon Company, 1900); William S. Learned and William C. Bagley, *The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools*, Bulletin No. 14, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (New York: The Foundation, 1920), pp. 22-23. An excellent study of teacher education in this country with special reference to the general education and technical components of programs is Merle L. Borrowman, *The Liberal and Technical in Teacher Education: A Historical Survey of the American Thought* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1956); A. O. Norton (ed.), *The First State Normal School in America* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1926); and J. P. Gordy, *Rise and Growth of the Normal-School Idea in the United States*, U.S. Office of Education Circular, No. 8 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1891).

[2] See Russell's long series of lectures on teaching, in *Education, the School, and the Teacher*, republished from Barnard's *American Journal of Education* (Hartford, Conn.: Brown and Gross, 1876), pp. 5-186.

[3] See Barnard, *Normal Schools*, Vol. 1, for some of their respective writings on the matter.

[4] For an account of one of these early teachers' seminaries see Claude M. Fuess, *An Old New England School: A History of Phillips Academy, Andover* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1917), Chapter XI.

[5] Frazier, "History of the Professional Education of Teachers in the United States," p. 12.

[6] U. S. Commissioner of Education, *Report, 1899-1900* (Washington: Government Printing Office, p. 2096.

[7] Hinsdale, *The Training of Teachers*, p. 376.

[8] Frazier, "History of the Professional Education of Teachers in the United States," p. 27. See also the first doctoral dissertation published by Teachers College, Columbia University, Junius L. Meriam, Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching (New York: Teachers College Press, 1905), for a brief review of teacher education programs in this country at the turn of the century.

[9] In this connection it is interesting to read the diaries of Cyrus Peirce and Mary Swift, a teacher and a student respectively in Framingham State Normal School in its earliest years, in Arthur O. Norton, The First State Normal School in America; also see the lengthy section on "State Normal Schools" with descriptions of a number of institutions and their programs in U. S. Commissioner of Education (Henry Barnard), Report, 1867-1868, pp. 649-820.

[10] For detailed information on this program see Mary Sheldon Barnes (ed.), Autobiography of Edward Austin Sheldon (New York: Ives-Butler Company, 1911); E. A. Sheldon, "Object Teaching," and H. B. Wilbur, "Object System of Instruction," in Education, the School, and the Teacher, pp. 465-494; "State Normal and Training School, at Oswego, N.Y.," in U. S. Commissioner of Education, Report, 1867-68, pp. 713-18; and Ned H. Dearborn, The Oswego Movement in American Education (New York: Teachers College Press, 1925).

[11] E. A. Sheldon, "Object Teaching," p. 467.

[12] Dearborn, The Oswego Movement in American Education, p. 108.

[13] Hinsdale, The Training of Teachers, pp. 391-401.

[14] Frazier, "History of the Professional Education of Teachers in the United States," pp. 33-37.

PART III

ANTECEDENT DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATIONAL THEORY AND PRACTICE IN COMPETENCY BASED TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS EARLY IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

CHAPTER 4

EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT AND MOVEMENTS CONTRIBUTING TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

During the period from 1900 to World War II, great advances in education, in the process of teaching, and in the professional preparation of teachers were made. This is the period of the highly influential national commissions that played such prominent roles in the development of public education, the development of the whole movement popularly labeled "progressive education," the evolution of the scientific movement with related use of empirical and surveyable methods in the study of educational matters, the emergence of teachers colleges of collegiate ranks and of colleges of education in universsities as the preeminent teacher preparatory institutions, the universalization of secondary education and the evolution of the comprehensive high school, with the concommitant problems of program planning and teaching methods, the formulation of the theory and practice of behaviorism and connectionism on one hand and of functionalism and perceptualism on the other in psychology and the resulting confusion among teachers, and, most significantly, the writings of many outstanding theorists and philosophers, such as John Dewey, Boyd Bode, Charles Judd, and educational leaders on the whole range of educational matters. Let us start with the greatest of all of these influences--John Dewey.

Educational Philosophers

John Dewey (1859-1952)

In this study only a very inadequate summary of Dewey's contributions to the matter of teacher education can be undertaken. The analysis will give pertinent examples of his views on the three aspects of the study: The purposes of education, the nature of teaching, and the competencies needed by teachers.

For Dewey, education was its own end--the continuous reconstruction of experience that constitutes the growth and development of the individual:

> When it is said that education is development, everything depends on how development is conceived. Our net conclusion is that life is development, and that developing,

> growing is life. Translated into educational equivalents, this means (i) that the educational process has no end beyond itself; it is its own end; and that (ii) the educational process is one of continual reorganizing, reconstructing, transforming. . . . Since in reality there is nothing to which growth is relative save more growth, there is nothing to which education is subordinate save more education.[1]

But growth, nevertheless, is not haphazard. It should always enable the individual to become more competent to deal with his or her environment and to direct his or her own life. The individual should constantly become increasingly able to direct the course of subsequent experience:

> Development . . . with respect to the special traits of child and adult life, means the direction of power into special channels: the formation of habits involving executive skill, definiteness of interest, and specific objects of observation and thought. . . . The adult uses his powers to transform his environment, thereby occasioning new stimuli which redirect his powers and keep them developing. . . . The mistake is not in attaching importance to preparation for future need, but in making it the mainspring of present effort. Because the need for preparation for a continually developing life is great, it is imperative that every energy should be bent to making the present experience as rich and significant as possible. Then as the present merges insensibly into the future, the future is taken care of.[2]

But Dewey did not advocate rampant individualism. Education has social obligations as well; and both aspects must enter into the process. He observed, however, that the future is uncertain, and the best preparation for life in the future is the ability to reconstruct and direct one's own life to ever higher levels of satisfaction, but in harmony with the existing social conditions:

> I believe that the school is primarily a social institution. Education being a social process, the school is simply that form of community life in which all those agencies are concentrated that will be most effective in bringing the child to share in the inherited resources of the race, and to use his own powers for social ends. . . . I believe that education is the fundamental method of social progress and reform. . . . I believe that education is a regulation of the process of coming to share in the social consciousness; and that the adjustment of individual activity on the basis of this social consciousness is the only sure method of social reconstruction (1897).[3]

* * *

> The moral responsibility of the school, and of those who conduct it, is to society. The school is fundamentally an institution erected by society to do certain specific work--to exercise a certain specific function in maintaining the life and advancing the welfare of society (1897).[4]

Dewey saw the ends and means of education as inextricably interwoven; hence he had much to say about the teaching process and the role of teachers in schooling. If the end is self-development and growth that leads to further growth in a social structure, the process of education must be devoted to self-activity, self-involvement, self-direction, personal judgment, and freedom of action in the social setting of home and school. Although Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Montessori had done much to develop practices of individual involvement, creative activity, self-direction, and the like in their day, and Mann, Spencer, Eliot, and many other practitioners had advocated the extensive use of practical experience in school programs, it was Dewey who formulated a consistent, harmonious, comprehensive philosophical base for both the aims and purposes of schooling and the means of achieving those goals. His concepts and recommendations found fertile soil among the teachers of the 1920s and 1930s.

Two basic concepts constitute Dewey's approach to the teaching process: the necessity of starting with and building on the reconstructed past experience of the learner, and the desirability of utilizing the interests, needs, and drives of the student in planning and carrying out learning activities. The two are, of course, interwoven. If the ends of education are to carry on further education through the reconstruction of experience, obviously, learning at any particular point should begin with pertinent bodies of such experiential backgrounds. The learner will be most effective in engaging in new learning experiences if he/she understands the significance and meaning of the new activities and pursues them with enthusiasm and deep involvement. Some excerpts state these points of view:

> The genuine principle of interest is the principle of the recognized identity of the fact or proposed line of action with the self; that it lies in the direction of the agent's own growth, and is, therefore, imperiously demanded, if the agent is to be himself . . . . The spontaneous power of the child, his demand for realization of his own impulses, cannot by any possibility be suppressed. If the external conditions are such that the child cannot put his spontaneous activity into the work to be done, if he finds that he cannot express himself in that, he learns in a most miraculous way the exact amount of attention that has to be given to this external material to satisfy the requirements of the teacher, while saving up the rest of his mental powers for following out lines of imagery that appeal to him. . . . But when we recognize there are certain powers

> within the child urgent for development, needing to be acted upon, in order to secure their own due efficiency and discipline, we have a firm basis on which to build. Effort arises normally in the attempt to give full operation, and thus growth and completion to these powers (1895).[5]

* * *

> The belief that all genuine education comes about through experience does not mean that all experiences are genuinely or equally educative. . . . The principle of the continuity of experience means that every experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after. . . . It is then the business of the educator to see in what direction an experience is heading. There is no point in his being more mature if, instead of using his greater insight to help organize the conditions of the experience of the immature, he throws away his insight (1938).[6]

* * *

> Existing likes and powers are to be treated as possibilities, as starting-points, that are absolutely necessary for any healthy development. But development involves a point towards which as well as one from which; it involves constant movement in a given direction. Then when the point that is for the time being the goal and end is reached, it is in turn but the starting-point of further reconstruction. The great problems of the adult who has to deal with the young is to see, and to feel deeply as well as merely to see intellectually, the forces that are moving in the young (1934).[7]

Dewey was much concerned about the preparation of teachers. He regarded his own Laboratory School as a place in which he and his staff could demonstrate the application of the principles and theories of education, particularly as derived from psychology, to the education of children, as well as to refine and extend theory. He was very critical of the normal schools, principally because of their neglect of theory and study of the subject fields. Many regard Dewey's Laboratory School as the single most important factor in the development of teacher education in this country, not only because it established a pattern for the founding of such schools in subsequent years and for the conduct of teacher education, but in the importance he attached to research, scientific study, and the involvement of the whole university in matters of education and of teacher education. In a later section on teacher education during this period attention will be given to Dewey's contributions.

The "Progressive Education" School of Philosophers

Educational philosophers and leading authorities flocked to the Dewey camp; most of the professional literature of the 1920-1940 period in the field of educational philosophy was an amplification and interpretation of the Dewey point of view. It was a period of phenomenal advance in education in this country, from the standpoint of growth in numbers and the ratio of children and youth enrolling in school, the changes taking place in the curriculum itself, processes and procedures used in curriculum planning, methods of teaching and working with students, and of the great advances in the professionalization of teaching. Names of leaders in the "progressive" movement are familiar to students of education: William Heard Kilpatrick, Boyd Bode, John Childs, Gordon Hullfish, V. T. Thayer, Harold Alberty, Carleton Washburn, Wilford Aiken, Harold Rugg, and George Counts are among those who contributed much to the movement.[8]

It was these men, as well as many other professors and practitioners, who filled out the Dewey philosophy, applied it to curriculum planning and teaching, and worked with tens of thousands of teachers in teacher education classes in developing the practice and process of progressive education. They added little new in basic concepts and points of view; their contributions were primarily in developing theories of curriculum and instruction that exemplified the Dewey philosophy and in contributing to the implementation of his concepts. However, some of these banner-wavers badly missed some of the essential elements of the Dewey concepts of education and schooling or so misdirected practice that Dewey was constrained on more than one occasion during this period to attempt to correct the record, and to chastise those who misconstrued his real views on the nature of schooling.

Kilpatrick, especially, devoted much attention to the matters of teaching and classroom processes.[9] During the 1930s, he participated extensively in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association, carrying on innumerable formal and informal discussions with teachers of those thirty-odd schools in conferences, staff meetings, and, a new development in teacher education, the workshop. Kilpatrick believed that teaching methods constituted the "quintessential element" in the whole process of schooling. In one of his earliest writings--one that established his fame in the area of teaching methodology--he wrote:

> . . . wholehearted purposeful activity in a social situation as the typical unit of school procedure is the best guarantee of the utilization of the child's native capacities now too frequently wasted. Under proper guidance purpose means efficiency, not only in reaching the projected end of the activity immediately at hand, but even more in securing from the activity the learning which it potentially contains. Learning of all kinds and in all its desirable ramifications

> best proceeds in proportion as wholeheartedness of purpose is present. With the child naturally social and with the skillful teacher to stimulate and guide his purposing, we can especially expect that kind of learning we call character building. The necessary reconstruction consequent upon these considerations offers a most alluring "project" to the teacher who but dares to purpose (1918).[10]

Here, in one inclusive statement, we have the whole concept of teaching in keeping with the Dewey philosophy--reconstruction of experience with a purposeful, social end in mind of still higher levels of subsequent experience within the social context of morality and values.

Idealists, Realists, and Essentialists

Although the points of view and concepts of Dewey and his advocates dominated educational thought in the 1910s and 1920s, most teachers, especially in the high schools, still planned instruction and taught in the mode of traditional education of the nineteenth century and the Eliot-Butler era. They could gain much philosophic support from Locke and Kant, and, later, from the schools of educational thought designated as idealism, realism, or essentialism. Leading spokesmen in the early twentieth century for these points of view, broadly stated, were William C. Bagley, Herman H. Horne, Ernest Horn, Frederick S. Breed, Alfred North Whitehead, William E. Hocking, Josiah Royce, Robert Ulich, and Issac Kandel.

These views have historic roots going back to the writings of Plato and Aristotle, but the modern versions have, of course, been greatly modified by the contributions of psychology, the popularity of Dewey's instrumentalism, the scientific movement, and human experience in general. Essentially, this school of thought emphasized the social aspect of education. Bagley states dogmatically that

> The Development of the Socially Efficient Individual (is) the Ultimate End of Education. . . . Social efficiency, then, is the standard by which the forces of education must select the experiences that are to be impressed upon the individual. Every subject of instruction, every item of knowledge, every form of reaction, every detail of habit, must be measured by this yardstick. Not What pleasure will bring to the individual, not In what manner will this contribute to his harmonious development, not What effect will this have upon his bread-winning capacity,--but always, Will this subject, or this knowledge, or this reaction, or this habit so function in his after-life that society will maximally profit?

John Wild in analyzing the realist's point of view for a yearbook states:

> The aim of education, as the realist sees it, is fourfold: to discern the truth about things as they really are and to extend and integrate such truth as is known; to gain such practical knowledge of life in general and of professional functions in particular as can be theoretically grounded and justified; and, finally, to transmit this in a coherent and convincing way both to young and to old throughout the human community.[12]

Whitehead adds this thought:

> What education has to impart is an intimate sense for the power of ideas, for the beauty of ideas, and for the structure of ideas, together with a particular body of knowledge which has peculiar reference to the life of the being possessing it.[13]

Herman Horne presents the idealist's view of the ideal pupil:

> The idealistic pupil is characterized by that admirable trait, the will to perfection. Whatever he does, he does as well as he can. He is ambitious to deserve honors in scholarship. He wants to grow in knowledge and wisdom, to appreciate the aesthetic things in life, to deserve approbation and to be a worthy person. He seeks to cultivate social responsiveness and responsibility and those skills and techniques necessary for effective action. He strives for perfection because the ideal person is perfect.[14]

What does this mean for teaching, and for the competencies teachers should possess? Let Horne, the idealist, give his recommendations:

> The idealistic teacher, like the idealistic pupil, pursues the method of perfecting and the idea of a cultivated personality. The things that are dear to him are self-consciousness, self-direction, self-activity, selfhood, inner spiritual growth. . . . The infinite and the eternal, though he does not fully comprehend then, mean more to him than the finite and the temporal. . . . He feels the need for his pupils even as they feel there is something satisfying about him, as though he answered their deepest questions and satisfied their highest cravings.[15]

In this struggle for the minds of teachers, other educators, and parents about the purposes of schooling and the means of achieving these ends the child-centered school of thought did not win in a landslide; in fact, although most everyone engaged in the practice of education accepted Dewey's concepts of interest and effort and education as the reconstruction of meaningful experience by the experiencer, the practices of progressive education faced a yawning indifference or met determined resistance among teachers generally until well into the 1930s, but especially so in the secondary schools.

The teacher who wanted to continue in the traditional pattern or was unwilling to make the effort to become a "progressive" in practice found justification for his/her methods in the writings of these theorists and got unflinching support from most parents, many of the professors of education in colleges of education and normal schools, and a large group of writers. The reports of the national commissions appointed by the National Education Association just before the turn of the century and in the early years of the 1900s reinforced traditional education, and set the patterns for high school programs that entrenched course programs, standards for equating high school courses, bases for admission to college, and course content for decades to follow. Moreover, the psychology of behaviorism and connectionism, the whole concept of the scientific movement, and the phenomenal swing to the testing movement, especially intelligence testing and the theory of the inflexible I.Q., entrenched traditionalism among the profession.

Sets of learning activities in which students should engage were to be cut-and-dried, predetermined, selected on the basis of their contribution to acquisition of factual information and skills, and cover the subject matter of the textbook or the published course of study or syllabus. Teaching methods emphasized repetitive drill, memorization, question-and-answer recitations, lectures, "recipe-book" laboratory work, job sheets, tests, contract assignments, and the like. Preparation for teaching centered on the acquisition of the skills to carry out such methods of teaching in the classroom.

The forward-looking report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918, recommending a much broader concept of secondary education in the "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," a point of view much more in the spirit of Dewey's Democracy and Education than any other educational document up to that time, had little real impact on practice in the secondary schools until the 1930s, when the forces for change--the philosophy of experimentialism, organismic psychology, teacher involvement in curriculum making, the universalization of secondary schooling, advocacy of a broad concept of egalitarianism (but still largely excluding minority ethnic groups), and some programs of professional education that endeavored to give substance in course work, student teaching, and demonstration laboratory schools to these new forces in schooling--emerged to provide a base for change in education, and in professional training for the "new school."

The Psychologists

Spencer and Herbart, as well as others writing in the last half of the nineteenth century, emphasized the importance of psychology as a base for planning educational programs and instruction. Both supported a naturalistic concept of human personality, recognizing the organic unity of body and mind, in contrast to traditional concepts of mental faculties, mental discipline, and the place of will as an independent aspect of behavior. By the beginning of the twentieth century psychology, as a field of study and investigation and as a basis for teaching practices, was in full bloom. The work, writing, and teaching of William James, G. Stanley Hall, and James M. Cattell in this country in the late 1800s and early 1900s gave great impetus to psychology as a factor in educational theory and practice. But the full impact of the movement on education was only realized when Dewey, Edward L. Thorndike, Robert S. Woodworth, Boyd Bode, and Charles Judd not only advanced psychological theory greatly, but directly applied it to matters of curriculum planning and instruction.[16] By the 1930s a whole host of psychologists were contributing theory, interpretations of theory, and applications to education and teaching; every teacher training institution offered courses in psychology, often in considerable scope and variety, for the professional program.

A brief summary of developments in psychological theory and their contributions to teaching and educational planning during the first three decades or so follows (one must recognize that limitations to a set of dates are impossible. In fact many of these developments were already under way by the 1890s):

1. The repudiation of the concepts of faculties of the mind and mental discipline. This meant that every aspect of the school's programs--all courses, activities, and instructional methodology--must be judged in terms of its own worth and its probability of contributing maximally to the attainment of the basic goals of education.

2. The cultural-epoch theory, which had enjoyed great vogue under G. Stanley Hall's influence, was completely discounted as a basis for planning the schooling process. Psychologists showed that children did not have to proceed slowly through the stages of evolution of the race to be educated. Their own present body of experiences, as Dewey had insisted, was a better guide to selection of educational activities.

3. The child became the central concern in all education. Child-study as a basic approach to educational planning was a significant contribution of psychologists to professional education. This movement resulted in a much more flexible and meaningful curriculum and a greater degree of individualization of schooling.

4. The purposeful act was established as the basis for effectiveness in learning. It was generally agreed that the motives or drives of the learner constitute the essential element in methodology of teaching. Dewey and Woodworth, particularly, inserted in the Thorndikian formula of stimulus-response, the organism itself, so that all learning was based on a stimulus-organism-response fomula. The organism, or for a better term in school planning the person, has his/her own drives, motives, experiential patterns, needs, wishes, and wants and he/she selects, chooses, and directs responses on the basis of his/her intents and ends sought.

5. The outcomes of a learning experience are built into character and reconstructed into a person's body of experience much more effectively if desired responses are practiced, exercised, and used in meaningful situations, and reinforced by feelings of success, approbation from peers or superiors, insight into one's own achievements and failures, or meaningful rewards.

6. Psychological theory was based to an increasing extent on experimentation, research, and replicated empirical evidence.

7. Cognitive development is an essential aspect of human growth and development. Language, knowledge, and learning skills are necessary components of educational goals.

8. The individual is a social being. His/her growth and development takes place in a society of human beings. All experience from which learning results takes place in a social setting. The environment strongly shapes his/her motives, wants, needs, drives, interests, and the members of the social group greatly influence the self-image, self-concepts, and the character of the person.

9. Although some disagreement had already arisen among psychologists, most accepted the concept that anything that exists exists in quantity and therefore can be measured, and that educational theory and practice must be based on such scientific inquiry.

These tremendously significant advances in psychological theory and in the efforts to provide a psychological base for teaching methodology had major implications for teacher education, stating, as they did, a much broader and more important role for a teacher than deemed necessary for carrying on instruction in the traditional programs of schooling.

The Scientific Movement

Psychologists provided much of the impetus, therefore, for the rapid development of what is termed "The Scientific Movement" in educational circles. But the philosophers, especially Herbart and Spencer in their day, and, during the period under analysis, Dewey insisted that a scientific approach to matters of educational practice was required for the formulation of an acceptable theory of education and instruction. It should be emphasized, however, that Dewey's conception of the use of scientific approaches in developing a program of education was far different than many other advocates of the movement. The bandwagon of much of the first four decades of the century was "The Scientific Method." All educational practice, including teacher education, was greatly shaped by this ill-defined, loosely structured movement.[17]

Thorndike early in the movement specified as clearly as anyone (such a definition is avoided in the 1938 yearbook) what is meant by "scientific" when applied to the study of educational matters:

> . . . power of correct prophecy is the test of scientific knowledge and verifiability by any competent observer is its diagnostic symptom. In so far as our judgments permit correct prophecy, we may be confident that they tally with objective fact; in so far as our methods permit any competent student to repeat every step of our observations and experiments, we may be confident that they are honest. . . . The final test of the scientific quality of the notions we have, the hypotheses we frame, the experiments we devise, the records we take, and the like, is of course their power to progress toward verification and prophecy and control (1906).[18]

From the late 1800s and through the period covered in this chapter (about 1940), the scientific movement encompassed these major aspects:

1. Deduction, a priori, of principles of education, especially with relation to child growth, mental development, and purposes of education, from the basic principles of pertinent sciences. Darwin's writings on evolution, particuarly, are a case in point. Much of Spencer's, Herbart's, James' and even Dewey's early work are of this nature.

2. Experimental study and genuine research that adhered to canons of scientific inquiry. These involved efforts to control variables, study relationships among independent and dependent variables, test hypotheses, analyze data mathematically, generalize to comparable populations.

3. Analytical studies, data collecting, the "orgy of 'tabulation'";[19] questionnaire and opinion studies; surveys of current practice; analysis of the content of courses, course offerings, textbooks used and their content, grade placement of content; tallies of the content of about any means of human communication--letters, newspapers, conversations, a citizen's use of computations, popular magazines; tallies of duties performed and work done on a job or as a housewife, a parent, consumer, or whatever; surveys of the current status of an educational practice, such as dropouts, retardation in grade level, rates of failure, promotion practices, class size, teacher load, time allotments, and ad infinitum.

4. Surveys and a more-or-less gross evaluation of the status of education and instruction in school systems; the school survey movement. Illustrative of this aspect of the "scientific" movement is the 15th Yearbook, Part I, of the National Society for the Study of Education entitled, Standards and Tests for the Measurement of the Efficiency of Schools and School Systems. The book contains chapters on tests and their use in measuring accomplishments of schools in arithmetic, reading, language, and spelling, scales for measuring physical growth and physiological age, a score card for surveying school building, and the uses of such tests and surveys in administering the school. This may be an example of the first steps in an accountability movement, but back in those good old days it was a voluntary effort on the part of the educators themselves to improve educational attainments. Worthy of note: no mention is made in this yearbook of measurement of the teacher's effectiveness--that had already been covered in the 14th Yearbook a year earlier (see a later section of this chapter).

5. The measurement of "intelligence" and of the factors that might influence its development; the relative role of nature and nurture.[20]

6. The measurement of achievement; the standardized testing movement; prognosis of ability in a specific area of study or work. The 17th Yearbook, Part II of N.S.S.E. entitled, The Measurement of Educational Products is an early report of this aspect of the scientific movement. It describes tests, statistical methods, and use of tests in schools.

7. Studies of needs, interests, concerns, problems, motives, ambitions, career choices, out-of-school activities, and the like of students.

8. Pronouncements of the elitists of professional education. Reports of national committees, of investigations of an issue or problem of major concern, monographs by committees, councils, professional associations, and the like, while perhaps not conforming to Thorndike's criteria above, often were accepted by educators as dictums and, hence, as a solid base on which to determine practice as on any "scientific" finding determined by these other processes. A statement by a Dewey, a Thorndike, a Strayer, a Bagley, a Judd, a Cubberley, a Terman, a Bode, a McMurry, a Bobbitt, or a Charters was often accepted in awe and with great reverence as certain to be the truth and to be acted upon accordingly. (For teachers of today, on this point, recall the awe accorded Jerome Bruner and James Conant in the late 1950s and early 1960s).

The 37th Yearbook, Part II of N.S.S.E., The Scientific Movement in Education, deals extensively with the contributions of the scientific movement to numerous aspects of education--the improvement of teacher education, curriculum planning, educational administration, and the like, and to methods of teaching--in general and in most of the subject fields. Later, attention will be given to teacher education developments.

The Flexner Reports

In addition to many other things, Abraham Flexner prepared two renowned reports that had undetermined, but undoubtedly considerable, influence on teaching and teacher education in this country. The first study was of medical education in the United States.[21] This long analytical investigation of the status of medical education and a lengthy presentation of what changes should be made is acclaimed today as the basis for the reform of professional education in medicine that quickly led to the high prestige accorded medical education and the practice of medicine in this country. The impact of the report and subsequent reforms in medical education on teacher education is, at best, tangential, but undoubtedly significant.

Flexner, in severely criticizing existing programs of medical education, especially emphasized the lack of direct laboratory and clinical experience in the programs of most institutions of the day. It is his insistence of the necessity of such aspects of professional training that affected practice in professional education in other fields. As will be pointed out later, teacher education institutions did have laboratory schools, dating from Dewey School at Chicago in 1896, but many still relied on what Flexner dubbed in the medical education as the didactic method--the "pupil heard and read about it (disease) . . . the student's part was, parrot-like, to absorb"--for imparting know-how to prospective teachers.

Three other major aspects of Flexner's recommendations for medical education--the setting of high standards for admission to medical schools and thus, severely restricting the number of students in medicine, the elimination of many small, inadequate institutions, and adequate financial support, although very costly for the quality institutions that should remain in service--have not been accepted in the area of teacher education as they have in most other substantive professions--law, dentistry, engineering, architecture, and the like. Henry S. Pritchett, President of the Foundation was especially caustic in his "Introduction" to the printed report about the poorly supported universities that proliferated medical schools just to establish a complete program: "The day has gone by when any university can retain the respect of educated men, or when it can fulfill its duty to education, by retaining a low grade professional school for the sake of its own institutional completeness."[22] Uh! How applicable even today to teacher education.

Flexner's second report to be noted here was his proposal for the establishment of a "Modern School."[23] This paper, first published in 1916, was the basis for the founding in 1917 of Lincoln School of Teachers College, outstanding "manifestation of pedagogical reformism during the 1920s," as Cremin sees it.[24] Flexner wanted to see a model school established that "would do for general education what the Johns Hopkins Medical School has done for medical education."

Flexner asked "How do we know and recognize an educated man in the modern sense?" His answer:

> . . . a man educated in the modern sense has mastered the fundamental tools of knowledge. . . . (He) will forego the somewhat doubtful mental discipline received from formal studies; he will be contentedly ignorant of things for learning which no better reason than tradition can be assigned. Instead his education will be obtained from studies that serve real purposes. Its content, spirit and aim will be realistic and genuine, not formal or traditional. Thus, the man educated in the modern sense will be trained to know, to care about and to understand the world he lives in, both the physical world and the social world.[25]

Flexner regarded the Modern School as "a laboratory from which would issue scientific studies on all kinds of educational problems," seeking "to influence education practice (it) can be a seminary for the training of teachers, first, its own, then others who will go out into service."[26] And that is certainly a significant function that Lincoln School served for 30 years. Its contributions to the development of the teaching process, and, hence, necessarily to teacher education in conjunction with the professional program of Teachers College of Columbia University, must be regarded as one of the significant forces in shaping teacher education during this period. Teachers by the thousands during the academic years and by the tens of thousands during the summers flocked to Teachers College to study, observe, and evaluate personally, these new developments in teaching and to plan their own approaches for use back on the job.

The "Progressive Schools"

In the same manner that the Dewey School originally and Lincoln School two decades later greatly affected instructional methods and curriculum planning and inevitably teacher education in this country, other university laboratory schools, private innovative schools, and some public schools served as models for the "new education" of the 1920s and 1930s. The contributions of these exemplary models of "progressive" education to teaching and inevitably to teacher education cannot be gainsaid. Only brief attention to them and their work is feasible here.[27]

The Dewey School was established more as a laboratory for the study of children and of the psychology of learning and as a place to test philosophical theory (analogous to a science laboratory in pure sciences) than as a demonstration or practice teaching school. Yet its program was exceptionally progressive in terms of the practices of the day, although Dewey disclaimed that approbation. He thought the school more as a "community-centered" school than a "child-centered" one. He wrote:

> The aim was to deepen and broaden the range of social contact and intercourse, of cooperative living, so that members of the school would be prepared to make their future social relations worthy and fruitful. . . . It was held that the process of mental development is essentially a social process, a process of participation; traditional psychology was criticized on the ground that it treated the growth of the mind as one which occurs in individuals in contact with a merely physical environment of things. And, as has been stated, the aim was ability of individuals to live in cooperative integration with others.[28]

Elsewhere, progressive practices, if not entire programs, were being developed and tried out in a number of schools during these first two decades of the century. A number of them are described in the book by John Dewey and his daughter Evelyn.[29]

The program of the practice school of the Cook County Normal School at Chicago, developed under the direction of Francis W. Parker during the later 1800s and the early 1900s, associated as it was with a teacher training institution, is especially noteworthy in terms of teacher education. Parker's work undoubtedly had great influence on Dewey and the things he attempted to do at the University of Chicago Laboratory School.

The Eight-Year Study, originated and directed by the Progressive Education Association during the years from 1932 to 1940, was unquestionably the most significant and most influential of the efforts to apply the basic Dewey concepts (often quite drastically distorted or misconstrued by spokesmen for the "new education") to schooling. Moreover, the study had a significant impact on teacher education. The Study was designed as an experiment to test whether graduates of thirty selected secondary schools that were granted exemption from specific course requirements for admission to cooperating colleges and universities would compare favorably to those college students who fulfilled the traditional requirements. Actually the Study, directed by a Commission on Relation of School and College, was much more than an experiment to test this hypothesis; it encompassed a far-flung, diverse, effort to reform the program of education in high schools, to develop a more meaningful and valid method of evaluating the outcomes of education, to try out new designs for curriculum planning that extended existing practices, and to use some new approaches to teacher education.[30]

With respect to curriculum design and teaching methodology, the Study staff worked with the 30 schools in developing core curriculum programs; problem-centered courses; courses on current issues and problems of the community; work in the arts; and class work that extensively involved cross-disciplinary study through correlation, fusion, and problem-oriented approaches to design. Much consideration was given to studies of the "needs" of youth as reported by yet other Commissions of the P.E.A--Commission on Secondary School Curriculum and Commission on Human Relations. Such programs called for different modes of instruction than traditionally were followed in secondary schools--discovery, community-centered activities, investigative studies, research papers, much student committee work, student participation in planning class activities, and use of student interests and "needs" and the social, policitical, and economic problems of the day as bases for the selection of units of work in the integrated core programs.

Correlatively, then, the three Commissions became engaged in extensive programs of teacher education in one form or another. Much of it was at the inservice level since the Study involved only the staffs of the 30 schools, but in due time the programs in teacher education institutions, especially those whose laboratory schools were included in the experiment, were affected. These schools developed and demonstrated the newer teaching modes being used in progressive schools and often they were the leading schools in developing core program, integrated subject programs, and the like. Teachers in training and teachers attending summer sessions could observe, criticize, and evaluate these new curriculum designs and instructional methods.

A major contribution to teacher education of the Eight-Year Study, however, was the establishment and development of workshops for teachers. In the first several years of the Study conferences of administrators and selected teachers were held for purposes of discussing the programs of the cooperating schools, but as the schools became more involved in innovative programs and the work of the Commissions on Secondary School Curriculum and on Human Relations expanded (a staff of Curriculum consultants was appointed in 1936), it was evident to the Study staff and participating faculties that more time was needed for planning. Hence a plan for a six-weeks seminar or conference at Ohio State University during the summer of 1936 was developed. Interest was so high in the plan that a similar work session was planned for 1937 at Sarah Lawrence College. The following summer three workshops, as they were now designated, were held.[31]

In the following two decades any teacher education institution worthy of the name, many school systems, a number of professional organizations, and state departments of education sponsored workshops of one kind or another, varying greatly in merit in terms of their contributions to teacher education. The workshop, as it is carried out in the best of them, is devoted fully to the utilization and development of teacher competency in planning curriculum, instructional methods, and evaluative techniques, or to development of competencies of administrators and staff people to perform their duties. It is designed primarily for inservice education. Undoubtedly the development of the workshop as a method of teacher education is the most significant advancement in professional education in the past 40 years. It not only was a forerunner, but is the vehicle today for carrying out aspects of competency-in-performance programs for inservice education.

The "progressive" education movement really boomed in the 1930s, even though one accepts the fact that many innovative programs were very poor examples or were actually contradictions of Dewey's concepts of schooling. As is evident, these developments in the elementary and secondary schools had great impact on teaching and on teacher education.

Curriculum Developments in Schools

The latter part of the 1920s and all of the 1930s were characterized by intensive and exciting development in curriculum planning. The Eight-Year Study was only one example of the trend, even though it commanded national attention. Here only scanty mention of other examples and of prominent workers in curriculum planning will be feasible.

Curriculum Theorists

Among many writers, consultants, and directors of curriculum planning during this period Franklin Bobbitt, Werrett Charters, Harold Rugg, Hollis Caswell, Henry Harap, Harold Alberty, Henry Morrison, and L. Thomas Hopkins are recognized as leaders of national repute and great influence.

Bobbitt and Charters, during the 1920s and then on for another decade or so, gave substance to the scientific movement in education in terms of its significance for curriculum planning. Both were influenced in their early writings by the concepts of efficiency in industrial management, but a consistent theory of curriculum construction was evolved. Moreover, as Sequel points out, they gave impetus, if not actual origination, to the importance of the role of the professional curriculum maker and to the need for a high level of specialization and competency in this art.[32]

Both are commonly regarded today as the formulators and advocates of life-analysis, activity-analysis, or job-analysis, whichever term may be used as the basis for developing the educational program. Bobbitt, in what was the first widely used book on the process and techniques of curriculum construction (many, many publications, dating back to the Greek philosophers, had been devoted to the aims of education, the content for achieving these aims, and the methods of teaching) presents his basic concept:

> Education is now to develop a type of wisdom that can grow only out of participation in the living experiences of men, never out of mere memorization of verbal statements of facts. It must, therefore, train thought and judgment in connection with actual life-situations, a task distinctly different from the cloistral activities of the past. . . . It has the function of training every citizen, man

> or woman, not for knowledge about citizenship, but for proficiency in citizenship; not for knowledge about hygiene, but for proficiency in maintaining robust health. . . .[33]

In implementing these concepts in practice, Bobbitt worked with the Los Angeles School system. In describing the approach he wrote:

> Education is primarily for adult life, not for child life. Its fundamental responsibility is to prepare for the fifty years of adulthood, not for the twenty years of childhood and youth.
>
> When we know what men and women ought to do along the many lines and levels of human experience, then we shall have before us the things for which they should be trained. The first task is to discover the activities which ought to make up the lives of men and women; and along with these, the abilities and personal qualities necessary for proper performance. These are the educational objectives.
>
> The plan to be employed is activity-analysis. The first step is to analyze the broad range of human experiences into major fields. . . the second step is to take them, one after the other, and analyze them into their more specific activities. . . . At all stages of the analyses, attention should be fixed upon the actual activities of mankind.[34]

Bobbitt in later writings[35] broadened these concepts, drew a marked distinction between general and occupational education, and recognized the importance of present experience and continuity of learning. But he always set as the basic task of education the development of the ability to deal effectively and properly with the many aspects of living in the individual's own world.

Charters advocated the same approach to curriculum planning. He distinguished clearly between "ideals" and "activities," and insisted that both were essential ingredients in curriculum making:

> The first step in curriculum construction is to determine the major objectives. . . . what these objectives shall be rests with those who offer the instruction, and must be the product of sagacious and sensitive interpretation of the spirit of the generation. . . . As the objectives are being determined they must be analyzed into ideals and activities. . . . The ideas are to be determined after careful study of all the supporting facts. . . . The activities are not based upon opinion but are objectively derived from examination of the physical and mental activities in which the individual is engaging or may in the future engage.[36]

Harold Rugg early in his career was a leading figure in the scientific movement, active in compiling what he later dubbed "an orgy of tabulation." And this continued to be his work beginning in 1919 as director of research for the new Lincoln School of Teachers College. In that atmosphere of progressive thought in education, and close association with Dewey, Kilpatrick, Caldwell, and others, he rapidly became one of the leaders in the progressive education movement throughout the 1920s and 1930s.[37]

His basic approach to curriculum planning is amply illustrated in the N.S.S.E. yearbook on the curriculum for social studies for which he was chairman and author or senior author of three of the most important chapters.[38] It was in this publication that he laid out his plan for a unified program in social studies that would be based on "the insistent and permanent problems and issues of contemporary economic, social, and political life." He and his coauthors postulated eight hypotheses on which such a course should be constructed. This plan, already being implemented experimentally at Lincoln School, became the framework and the procedure for the preparation of a highly controversial, but widely used, set of textbooks for social studies in the elementary schools. This series of texts had great influence on subsequent developments in the teaching of social studies and on the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools.

Rugg's contribution to curriculum planning continued in rapid order for he served as chairman of and a major contributor to the most significant book on curriculum planning to be published in this period of curriculum theorizing, the 26th Yearbook of N.S.S.E, _The Foundations and Techniques of Curriculum-Construction_, already cited. It not only contained a brief history by Rugg of the nature of curriculum planning for the previous century, but surveys of current practices, descriptions of curriculum development programs in six public school systems and eleven laboratory schools, reviews of curriculum programs in other agencies, and a chapter by Rugg critically appraising the current status of planning. Part II is especially significant for it contains a summary statement of fundamental principles for curriculum planning which all the members of the Yearbook committee approved. These principles generally are accepted today as the basis on which planning must proceed. Most of the members prepared supplementary statements that constitute the best single source of thought on curriculum making by the early leaders of this new specialty.

Rugg added to his reputation as a leader in curriculum thought by the publication a year later in conjunction with Ann Shumaker of the book, _The Child-Centered School_, which served the same purpose as the Deweys' book of 13 years earlier--a description of progressive practices in innovative schools--but in addition the authors stated a point of view about education and desirable directions of development.

Hollis L. Casewell's work as a consultant and director for a number of curriculum planning programs of state departments of education in the 1930s provided the basis for three of his significant contributions to the curriculum development movement of this period--the involvement of teachers fully in the process of planning, the formulation of a new design for organizing the curriculum, and his systematic approach to the study of curriculum as a professional field of endeavor.[39] From his vantage point at George Peabody College, Caswell directed curriculum development programs for at least six states during the period from 1929 to 1937, when he returned to Teachers College, Columbia.

In examining programs under way in city school systems during the 1920s, particularly those described in the 26th Yearbook, Caswell came to believe that it was especially important to involve all teachers in the planning process, inasmuch as the actual curriculum that evolves in the schools is filtered through the teacher himself/herself. Improvement in schooling depends, he felt, primarily on the improvement of the professional knowledge, understanding, and competencies of each teacher.

Hence, the first major step in each state development program was an extensive inservice education program of study, discussion, and group planning. This was followed by a procedure for teacher involvement in developing and trying out innovative practices in the classroom, especially through the planning and carrying out of new kinds of units of work in teaching situations. The inservice programs had encouraged teachers to plan units that would be of meaning and significance to the students, growing out of their needs, interests, and past body of experience (basically, a Dewey approach). This gave the teachers experience in modifying the traditional formal subject approach to design by drawing on any content that was appropriate to the development of the unit, be it a problem, community concern, an individual interest, or a systematic study of a topic.

In bringing this approach together into a systematic plan for instruction in the schools, Caswell formulated a curriculum design based on the selection of appropriate units of work that provided instruction focused on the social function (9 to 11 were usually identified in these state programs). It should be noted that these programs of curriculum revision paralleled in time the Eight-Year Study in innovative high schools; the two projects served reciprocally to reinforce the climate for educational change, especially in the nature and mode of teaching.

Out of this extensive experience in actually directing curriculum planning programs, and his own concepts and philosophy of education, Caswell, with assistance from a colleague, published a book which systematically treated all aspects of curriculum development in a comprehensive manner.[40] This book set the pattern for most comprehensive textbooks on curriculum planning published since that time. It prompted many teacher education institutions to expand and improve their courses for teachers and administrators, and, along with the many other movements of this period, establish the field of curriculum as a major field for professional study and specialization.

Many other educators of this period deserve mention, but space permits only a few. Henry Harap and L. Thomas Hopkins had each publihsed a book on the techniques of curriculum planing that preceded Caswell's book by a number of years.[41] Neither was as comprehensive as Caswell's nor did they present plans for new curriculum designs and practices. However, the two books served to further the movement early in its development. Both men were active in the field for many years thereafter. Henry C. Morrison, although he wrote rather extensively during this period, is chiefly noted for his exposition of the five formal steps in the unit method of teaching. A direct throwback to the Herbartian process of teaching, Morrison labeled them exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation.[42] With the great enthusiasm developed for the unit of work approach to instruction in the 1930s and 1940s, Morrison's scheme was the alternative to the needs and interests, social functions, or social problems approach to unit teaching in the progressive programs. The mode was widely used by high school teachers in the traditional school subjects, and was often the basis for training teachers in the methodology of disciplinary instruction.

Defining Content of Curriculum

Directly related to the teaching process, and hence, to teacher education, as has been stated in the two preceding sections of this chapter, is the nature and character of the curriculum itself. It is germane, therefore, to note briefly other curriculum developments of these first four decades of the century. In the early decades, curriculum studies and reports by various professional groups and committees were principally concerned with eliminating waste in instructional programs because of duplication among grades and of out-of-date content, with defining what did constitute the minimum essentials of the contents, and with the correlation of the individual subjects.

For twenty-five years, from the report of the Committee on Secondary School Studies (Committee of Ten) in 1893 to that of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918, a dominant influence in curriculum planning was the work of successive sets of committees appointed by the National Education Association and its subsidiary groups. The report of the Committee of Ten had tremendous influence on the programs of the high schools for decades, recommending not only four systematic courses of study or "curricula" for the high school programs, but also, through the reports of sub-committees for the principal subject fields, the content of the subjects to be included. Teaching methods, and hence teacher competencies, were inherent in this type of prescription--mastery of this body of knowledge through slavish adherence to a textbook.

The Committee of Fifteen was appointed in 1893 and submitted a 56-page report on the "Correlation of Studies in Elementary Education" and another on "The Training of Teachers" in 1895. The subcommittee on correlation was headed by none other than William T. Harris, the

U.S. Commissioner of Education, one of the great educational leaders of that period. Participating in the discussion of the report were such eminent educators as Nicholas Murray Butler, Frank M. McMurry, Francis W. Parker, Charles McMurry, Charles De Garmo, and a number of superintendents of city school systems.[43] The Committee on Rural Schools accepted the report of the Committee of Fifteen with respect to the course of study and turned to other matters.

The work of the Committee on the Economy of Time in Education was even more extensive and significant.[44] The group was appointed by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in 1911 and submitted its final (fourth) report in 1919. However, the Department continued its work in defining the courses and their content and grade placement by issuing three successive yearbooks on the subject in the early 1920s.[45] The function of the Committee was to "investigate the waste in the elementary schools and to make definite proposals for eliminating the archaic and least useful materials of the course of study and to propose more economic methods of teaching." The approach of the Committee is clear.

> Choose the most important subjects and the most important topics; make a distinction between first-rate facts and principles and tenth-rate; prune thoroughly, stick to the elements of a subject; do not try to teach everything that is good; confine the period of elementary education to mastering the tools of education. This does not prevent inspirational work, which is a demand on the skill of the teacher rather than on time.[46]

From our vantage point is it any wonder that the progressive education movement developed with such great enthusiasm among theorists and insightful practitioners in the 1920s and 1930s?

The effects of such a curriculum plan on teaching and the preparation of teachers is apparent--emphasize drill, the teaching of facts, memorization, test efficiency, stick to the prescribed content, follow the textbook, course of study, or syllabus.

The fourth report of the Committee was devoted to a summary of "investigations which throw light on economy in teaching." Teachers of the 1970s can readily gain an insight (and probably be shocked) into just what was expected of teachers of that day by reading some recommendations for teaching these "minimal essentials" of the curriculum. To illustrate, Frank Freeman, a highly regarded psychologist of this period and of years later, prepared the summary for teaching writing. He lists 28 rules for teaching the subject. These include:

> Rule 1. The writer should face the desk squarely. . . . Rule 8. The forefinger should rest on the penholder below the thumb. . . . Rule 19. Ten to fifteen minutes

> a day is probably the best length of practice period. . . . Rule 25. Counting is a useful temporary device to lead the pupils to organize the movement into unit.[47]

William S. Gray, also widely recognized later as a specialist in the teaching of reading, states 48 rules for teaching the subject:

> Ability to comprehend the meaning of what is read improves steadily throughout the grades. . . . Reading exercises should emphasize the content of what is read. . . . Much reading of simple interesting material is effective in increasing the rate of reading.

Ernest Horn listed 41 rules for teaching spelling; Walter S. Monroe, 25 for teaching arithmetic; Fred C. Ayer, 18 for drawing, and Carl Seashore discussed music.

These sorts of studies and books on methodology and teaching constituted the basic content of many methods courses in normal schools and colleges of education in the 1910s, 1920s, and with little modification, in teacher education programs in some of the most stultifying situations until World War II.

However, on the positive side it should be noted that with the spark provided by the first innovative progressive schools in the late 1910s and early 1920s, the wildfire created by the Eight-Year Study, the curriculum development programs of state departments of education in the South, the reports of the Commissions of the Progressive Education Association, the fervent advocacies of Kilpatrick, Rugg, Washburne, Thayer, Caswell, Dewey, Newlon, Alberty, Counts, Bobbitt, Charters, and literally hundreds of other educators, and the pressure for change from parents and students generally, curriculum development movements took a new approach in many school situations in the 1920s and 1930s.[48] The nature and character of these new designs and methodology have been treated briefly above. Essentially they were efforts to make the school curriculum both child-centered and society centered, that is, basing the program on the needs, interests, and concerns of the students, but planning units of work within the curriculum that enabled the students to study the major social, political, and economic problems and issues facing communities, state, nation, and world.

Procedures and Processes for Planning the Curriculum

The period of the 1920s and 1930s witnessed a most significant shift in procedures used for planning the curriculum and the instructional program. Until that time, curriculum planning, in the sense used in this study as the formulation of plans for the schooling of students, was largely done by textbook writers (a textbook was the plan for the content of instruction and methods were those best suited to develop mastery of this content), or by the superintendent of schools or a staff member, the state department of education staff, or a college staff member who prepared courses of study or course syllabuses.[49] As was shown above, Committees of the National Education Association or the Department of Superintendence made a number of reports to guide the textbook and course of study writers but it was still these types of persons who actually prepared the curriculum plans used in the schools.

In the 1920s the national curriculum commissions entered the picture,[50] principally at the high school level, as an aspect of the work of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. From the date it replaced the National Herbart Society, the National Society for the Study of Education frequently appointed committees to prepare yearbooks on the curriculum and teaching of a subject field.[51] The Progressive Education Association in the late 1930s and the early 1940s published a series of books on its recommendations and points of view about curriculum and teaching in five subject areas.[52] The National Council of Teachers of English moved out on its own and prepared a report on English that had great influence in shaping the English program in schools as well as in teaching the subject.[53]

In the meantime a much more significant development in curriculum planning was underway--the involvement of teachers themselves in the preparation of curriculum plans. Cubberley pointed out in his article in 1913 that the superintendents of larger cities "usually" conferred with committees selected from the teaching force and that in one state the state teachers association was active in working out the course of study. But he emphatically stated that the state department of education for the state and the superintendent for city school systems had the authority and fully exercised it in issuing the courses of study. Sequel cites several instances--St. Louis, Chicago, and Boston--in which teachers or principals had participated in a quite limited way in curriculum planning prior to 1920. She also points out the increasing aggressiveness of teachers in professional organizations and in other professional matter during the period.[54]

The situation changed dramatically in the 1920s.[55] Studies made for the 26th Yearbook, The Foundations and Techniques of Curriculum-Construction in 1925 show that committees composed of administrators, supervisors and teachers participated, albeit to a very limited degree in many instances, in the revision of courses of study or preparation of new ones--usually the extent of curriculum-construction in that period. Courtis, reporting practice in public elementary schools, stated that

> The machinery of revision employed depends somewhat upon the size of the city. In the smaller towns the agency is frequently one person, the superintendent

> usually, but principal, teacher, or members of the supervisory staff are mentioned in the order named. In place of single individuals there are frequently small groups, composed usually of members of the administrative staff, principals, and teachers. In all types of schools a committee of teachers under the direction of administrative or supervisory officers constitutes the conventional machinery of revision.[56]

Counts, reporting the same kind of study of public high schools, states:

> The machinery for curriculum-revision may consist of a single individual, a small group variously constituted, committees of teachers working under different forms of leadership, or any combination of these three instruments. . . . When such a group is organized, it is almost always composed of members of the general administrative and supervisory staff, high school principals, and high school teachers.[57]

But in contrast, Section III of the Yearbook reports "progressive curriculum-construction" practices in six school systems. All reported the use of committees of teachers in the preparation or revision of courses of study and the development of curriculum plans. Denver and St. Louis were making the most extensive use of teacher committees in their respective programs. Section IV describes the curriculum and curriculum planning activities in a number of laboratory schools. Each reported extensive teacher participation in planning the program of the school. Bonser summarized their reports: "In each of these schools, the school staff itself--its principal or director, its supervisors, and its teachers--is responsible for the curriculum."[58]

In planning with the Virginia State Department of Education in the early 1930s, Caswell insisted that all teachers must be fully involved in any curriculum revision program if classroom practice was actually to be improved. He and his coauthor wrote:

> If the success of a curriculum program is to be measured by changes that are achieved in the conduct of boys and girls by reason of improvements accomplished in the instructional program, it becomes evident that early in the program the entire teacher-group within the system must become sensitized to the need for the improvement of instruction. . . . Only through a thorough understanding of the curriculum program and all of its implications can the teacher-group give the intelligent co-operation that will result in improved classroom instruction.[59]

Caswell, who alone directed the Virginia program, insisted that three kinds of participation were essential: "wide participation by all teachers, supervisors, and administrators in the given school system; intensive participation by small selected professional groups; and general participation by representative lay groups working on certain aspects of the program."[60] In the state programs that he directed all were urged to participate in the curriculum development program by engaging in an intensive program of inservice study and discussion, preparing and trying out units of work in their own classrooms and then submitting them to a state planning committee for use in developing new courses, and in trying out the tentative draft of such new courses and submitting criticisms of them.

At the same time, teachers in the high schools included in the Eight-Year Study, similarly, were participating in conferences, workshops, and the like in which curriculum matters were discussed and curriculum plans developed. The movement for teacher participation in curriculum planning caught fire throughout the nation and since that period it is generally assumed by all educators that the teacher is, after all, the curriculum planner in terms of the kinds of learning experiences in which students engage. All others--administrators, supervisors, state department personnel, professors of education, consultants, textbook writers, publishers and producers of instructional materials, federal bureaucrats--simply provide support services--leadership, insights, understandings, research findings, examples--to the teacher.

Obviously acceptance of such concepts by the profession and the public, although often contravened in practice in many ways, had tremendous impact on teacher education. The competencies required of the professional teacher multiplied many times by acceptance of this significant piece of "conventional wisdom," pulled together and recognized as sound during the 1930s and refined in practice to this day.

Footnotes

[1] John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916), pp. 59-60.

[2] Dewey, pp. 59 and 65.

[3] John Dewey, "My Pedagogic Creed," in *Dewey on Education*, ed. Martin S. Dworken (New York: Teachers College Press, 1959), pp. 22 and 30.

[4] John Dewey, "Ethical Principles Underlying Education," in *Moral Education*, Third Yearbook of the National Herbart Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1897), p. 10.

[5] John Dewey, "Interest as Related to Will," in Second Supplement to the National Herbart Society Yearbook for 1895 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1903), pp. 9-12, passim. This essay was later expanded into *Interest and Effort in Education* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913).

[6] John Dewey, *Experience and Education* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1938), pp. 13, 27 and 32.

[7] John Dewey, "The Need for a Philosophy of Education," in *Education Today*, ed. Joseph Ratner (New York: G. P. Putman's Sons, 1940), p. 293.

[8] For commentary and analysis of the views of many of the leading advocates of the "progressive" point of view during this period, see Lawrence A. Cremin, *The Transformation of the School* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1961), Chapters 6-8.

[9] See especially William Heard Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1925). Also see Cremin, *The Transformation of the School*, pp. 215-220, for a critique of his work.

[10] William Heard Kilpatrick, "The Project Method," *Teachers College Record*, 19:334-335, September, 1918.

[11] William C. Bagley, *The Educative Process* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1905), pp. 58, 60-61.

[12] John Wild, "Education and Human Society: A Realistic View," in *Modern Philosophies and Education*, 54th Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, Chm. John S. Brubacher (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 31.

[13] Alfred North Whitehead, *The Aims of Education and Other Essays* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1929, quoted from Mentor Book edition, 1949), p. 23.

[14] Herman H. Horne, "An Idealistic Philosophy of Education," in *Philosophies of Education*, 41st Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, Chm. John S. Brubacher (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942), pp. 157-158.

[15] Horne, p. 157.

[16] For brief reviews and critical analyses of the work of these two groups of men with respect to educational theory see, Cremin, *The Transformation of the School*, pp. 100-126; Frederick J. McDonald, "The Influence of Learning Theories on Education (1900-1950)," in *Theories of Learning and Instruction*, 63rd Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, Chm. Ernest R. Hilgard (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), Chapter 1; Walter T. Pax, *A Critical Study of Thorndike's Theory and Laws of Learning* (Washington, D.C.: The Catholic University of America, 1938), pp. 7-71; "Educational Psychology," in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, ed. Walter S. Monroe (New York: Macmillan Company, 1950), pp. 346-352.

[17] For accounts of the nature, scope, and development of the "scientific movement" see, *The Scientific Movement in Education*, 37th Yearbook, Part 11, National Society for the Study of Education, Chm. Frank N. Freeman (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938); B. Othanel Smith, "Science of Education," in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 1950 edition, ed. Walter S. Monroe (New York: Macmillan Company, 1950), pp. 1145-1151; Cremin's Chapter, "Science, Darwinism, and Education," in *Transformation of the School*, pp. 90-126; Harold Rugg, "Curriculum-Making and the Scientific Study of Education Since 1910," in *The Foundations and Techniques of Curriculum-Construction*, 26th Yearbook, Part I, Chm. Harold Rugg (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927), pp. 67-82.

[18] Edward L. Thorndike, "What Is 'Scientific' Method in the Study of Education?" in *The Fifth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education (Note the word "scientific" in the title of this organization early in its history) (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1906), pp. 81-82.

[19] Rugg, "Curriculum-Making and the Scientific Study of Education since 1910," p. 71.

[20] The tremendous interest in this aspect of the science of education may by illustrated by the publications of the National Society for the Study of Education during this period. Its 21st Yearbook (1922) was *Intelligence Tests and Their Use*, with Part I on *The Nature, History, and General Principles of Intelligence Testing*, and Part II, *The Administrative Use of Intelligence Tests*; the 27th Yearbook (1928) was *Nature, and Nurture,* with Part I on *Their Influence Upon Intelligence*, and Part II on *Their Influence Upon Achievement*; the 39th Yearbook (1940) was *Intelligence: Its Nature and Nurture*, with Part I on *Comparative and Critical Exposition*, Part II on *Original Studies and Experiments*.

[21] Abraham Flexner, *Medical Education in the United States and Canada*, Bulletin No. 4, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (New York: The Foundation, 1910).

[22] Flexner, p. xi.

[23] Abraham Flexner, *A Modern School*, Occasional Papers, No. 3 (New York Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1919).

[24] Cremin, *The Transformation of the School*, p. 280.

[25] Flexner, *A Modern School*, p. 8.

[26] Flexner, p. 23.

[27] Brief, but excellent descriptions of a number of the early school are in Cremin, *The Transformation of the School*, Chapter 5.

[28] John Dewey, "The Theory of the Chicago Experiment," in Katherine Camp Mayhew and Anna Camp Edwards, *The Dewey School: The Laboratory School of the University of Chicago, 1896-1903* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1936), pp. 466-467.

[29] John Dewey and Evelyn Dewey, *Schools of Tomorrow* (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1915); See also Harold Rugg, "Curriculum-Making in Laboratory Schools, in *The Foundations and Techniques of Curriculum-Construction,* Part I, Chapter 5, for an account of these early laboratory schools, especially the work of Francis W. Parker.

[30] For brief analyses and appraisals of the Study see Cremin, *The Transformation of the School*, pp. 251-258; Patricia A. Graham, *Progressive Education: From Arcady to Academe: A History of the Progressive Education Association, 1919-1955* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1967);, pp. 90, 133-135; See their citations to additional literature for detailed information on the Study.

[31] For accounts of the origin and development of the movement see W. Carson Ryan, *Summer Workshops in Secondary Education* (New York: Progressive Education Association, 1939); Kenneth L. Heaton and others, *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Summer Workshops* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940).

[32] Mary Louise Sequel, *The Curriculum Field: Its Formative Years* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1966), Chapter 4.

[33] Franklin Bobbitt, *The Curriculum* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918), p. iv.

[34] Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924), pp. 8-9.

[35] Franklin Bobbitt, "The Orientation of the Curriculum-Maker, in *The Foundations and Techniques of Curriculum-Construction*, Part II, Chapter III, and *The Curriculum of Modern Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941).

[36] W. W. Charters, *Curriculum Construction* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1923), p. 94.

[37] For an excellent account of his work and points of view see Sequel, *The Curriculum Field*, Chapter 5.

[38] National Society for the Study of Education, *The Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary School*, 22nd Yearbook, Part II, Chm. Harold Rugg (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1923).

[39] For a biographical study see Sequel, *The Curriculum Field*, Chapter 6.

[40] Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development* (New York: American Book Company, 1935).

[41] Henry Harap, *The Technique of Curriculum Making* (New York: Macmillan Company, 1928); L. Thomas Hopkins, *Curriculum Principles and Practices* (Philadelphia: Benj. Sanborn and Company, 1929).

[42] Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926).

[43] National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses: Session of the Year 1895* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1895), pp. 232-259 and 237-350.

[44] The Reports of the Committee are in N.S.S.E. Yearbooks: *Minimum Essentials in Elementary-School Subjects--Standards and Current Practices*, 16th Yearbook, Part I, 1917; *Third Report of the Committee on Economy of Time in Education*, 17th Yearbook Part I, 1918; *Fourth Report of the Committee on Economy of Time in Education*, 18th Yearbook, Part II, 1919 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press).

[45] National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *The Elementary School Curriculum*, 2nd Yearbook, 1924; *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum*, 1925; and *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*, 1926 (Washington, D.C.: The Association).

[46] *Minimum Essentials in Elementary-School Subjects--Standards and Current Practices*, pp. 11, 12.

[47] *Fourth Report of the Committee on Economy of Time in Education*, pp. 11-19, passim.

[48] For accounts of this period and important events and developments in the shift from the old traditional school to a more progressive program see Cremin, *The Transformation of the Schools*, Chapters 7-8; Edward A. Krug, *The Shaping of the American High School*, Vol. 2, *1920-1941* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1972), especially Chapters 4, 6, 9, and 10.

[49] See Edward P. Cubberley, "Courses of Study," in *A Cyclopedia of Education*, Vol. 2, ed. Paul Monroe (New York: Macmillan Company, 1911), pp. 222-224.

[50] For a brief account of this phase of curriculum development see Rugg, *The Foundations and Technique of Curriculum-Construction*, Part I, Chapter 3.

[51] This partial list is illustrative: *Some Principles of Teaching History*, 1st Yearbook, Part I, 1902; *The Progress of Geography in the Schools*, 1st Yearbook, Part II, 1902; *The Course of History in the Common Schools*, 2nd Yearbook, Part I, 1903; *On the Teaching of English in Elementary and High Schools*, 5th Yearbook, Part I, 1906; *Industrial*

Education: Typical Experiments Described and Interpreted, 11th Yearbook, Part I, 1912; *Report of the Society's Committee on Silent Reading,* 20th Yearbook, Part II, 1921; *A Program for Teaching Science,* 31st Yearbook Part I, 1932; *Music Education,* 35th Yearbook, Part II, 1936.

[52] Progressive Education Association, Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, *Teaching Creative Writing* (1937); *Science in General Education* (1938); *Mathematics in General Education* (1940); *The Social Studies in General Education* (1940); *Language in General Education* (1940) (New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts).

[53] National Council of Teachers of English, *An Experience Curriculum in English* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1935).

[54] Sequel, *The Curriculum Field*, pp. 89-90.

[55] An interesting, but somewhat sarcastic account of the movement is Krug's *The Shaping of the American High School*, Vol. 2, pp. 24-41, and 275-284.

[56] Stuart A. Courtis, "Current Practices in Curriculum-Revision in Public Elementary Schoools, in *The Foundations and Technique of Curriculum-Construction*, Part I, p. 127.

[57] George S. Counts, "Current Practices in Curriculum-Making in Public High Schools," in *The Foundations and Technique of Curriculum-Construction*, Part I, p. 153.

[58] F. G. Bonser, "Curriculum-Making in Laboratory or Experimental Schools," in *The Foundations and Technique of Curriculum-Construction*, Part I, p. 354.

[59] Caswell and Campbell, *Curriculum Development*, p. 469.

[60] Caswell and Campbell, *Curriculum Development*, p. 468.

CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPMENTS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Coordinately with the exciting, and tremendously significant developments in the philosophy of education, psychology, research, and, most important, the educational program of the schools during the course of the first four decades of the present century, great strides forward were made in the professional education of teachers. In discussing the other movements, allusions to advances in teacher education have already been made but here the entire movement will be reviewed briefly, and significant antecedents for competency-in-performance teacher education programs will be noted. The literature on teacher education during this period is so voluminous that many meritorious publications will be passed over, and even some important developments barely mentioned or ignored. Developments in individual institutions or in state programs will not be treated except for those that contributed significantly to the advancement of teacher education nationally.

Four trends developed during the pre-World War II decades: The emergence of collegiate-level, degree granting teachers colleges and colleges or departments of education in universities as the dominant institutions for teacher training, thus gradually replacing the normal schools in this role; the great expansion in the scope, extent, and nature of teacher education programs, especially in the professional courses and programs offered and the programs of practice teaching, observation of practice, and other practical work; the establishment and recognition of teaching as a profession and great gains in the "professionalization" of its members; and the continued, and greatly increased, criticism of the programs and methods of teacher education in this country.

The Rise of Teachers Colleges and Colleges of Education

As stated in Chapter 3, almost all professional preparation of teachers at the turn of the century was being done in some form of noncollegiate normal school. But at Strayer pointed out in the 1914 article:

> Many of the men and women now teaching in the public schools of the United States have never had any definite professional training in preparation for teaching.[1]

Frazier, in his study in 1933, presented these data from the U.S. Office of Education on the number of teacher training institutions by types:[2]

	1900	1910	1933
State normal schools	125	141	50
State teacher colleges	2	10	146
City normal schools	27	31	16
City teachers colleges		1	7
Private normal schools	134	67	35
Private teachers colleges		1	11
County normal schools	3	8	81
	291	259	346

His tabulations do not include teacher education provided at the secondary school level by the high schools, seminaries, and academies, nor the professional education work offered in collegiate institutions and universities. The U.S. Commissioner of Education presents a table for 1910 which shows that 110 public and private universities and colleges and 883 public and private high schools had students enrolled in a "teachers' training course."[3] Comparable data are not available for the other two years listed in the table. However, as Pangburn points out by quoting from an earlier Commissioner's report, most of the work in the colleges and universities was simply a normal school department attached to the institution, but not of collegiate rank.[4] The table above shows the effects of the rapid upgrading of many normal schools to state teachers colleges, the gradual closing out of the private and city normal schools, and the rise of a new type of normal school--the county normal, usually not recognized as a collegiate institution.

Pangburn prepared an excellent study of the transition of the normal schools to teachers colleges, usually state controlled institutions, although a few, as in Chicago, St. Louis, and Washington, D.C. were city controlled.[5] Some teachers colleges, especially in recent decades, were established as new institutions specifically for that purpose.

Some desultory efforts were made in the nineteenth century to provide teacher training in collegiate institutions. New York University is usually credited with the establishment of the first chair of pedagogy, in 1832; however, this was not a permanent development for it was not until 1887 that a full-fledged program was established at the institution, with the first "School of Pedagogy" in the United States being organized in 1890. Antioch College, under Horace Mann, introduced a course in education in 1853; the State University of Iowa upgraded a normal school course which had been initiated in 1855 and established a chair of Mental Philosophy, Moral Philosophy, and Didactics and the first permanent department of education in a university in 1873; Michigan established a program of professional training in 1879 and Wisconsin in 1885.[6]

Hubbell states that "The United States Commissioner of Education reported a total of 220 colleges and universities engaged in pedagogy in 1896-97, with the Middle West leading all other sections." But he adds that "Professor Hinsdale of Michigan pointed ou the term 'pedagody' as used in the Commissioner's report was 'stretched to its utmost limits.'" Hinsdale identified three types of training programs of very unequal merit: some lectures or a textbook course on the theory and elements of teaching; regular instruction in education but of the normal school type; and "institutions that aim to teach education--its science, art, and history--rather than pedagogy." Hubbell devoted a chapter to an excellent analysis of the development, expansion, and reorganization of the teacher training program during the first 23 years of the century. It is a story known to many members of the profession, especially professors of professional education who have served the colleges and universities for many years. But further review here is not appropriate.

One other development in professional education during this early period of the twentieth century is worthy of note--the establishment of Teachers College, Columbia University.[7] Actually the institution had its origin in 1880 in the activities of the Kitchen Garden Association, which was reorganized as the Industrial Education Association in 1884. These groups in succession were interested in providing education voluntarily to children of New York in classes in domestic and practical arts. Two purposes of the latter Association were to "study, devise, and introduce methods and systems of domestic and industrial training into schools" and to "train teachers, who shall be able and ready to assist in the work, whenever a favorable opening occurs." The Association adopted ten "Articles of Faith," a sort of charter for further actions.

Nicholas Murray Butler, later to become president of Columbia University, served as president of the Industrial Education Association from 1887 to 1891. It was he who was the driving force for directing the work of the Association along three lines: providing instruction in the practical arts for children of New York; advocating, promoting, and advancing plans for industrial arts education in the schools; and the establishment of a college for the training of teachers for the industrial arts. The group succeeded so well in these first two functions, that it became imperative that an extended program of teacher education be established. In 1887, the Association opened the New York College of Training for Teachers. Its charter gave the College the right to confer bachelor, master, and doctor's degrees in pedagogy and "to give instruction in the history, philosophy, and science of education, psychology, in the science of art of teaching . . . ." The College quickly won renown not only in this country but abroad; and in due time absorbed the Association itself. In 1892, in obtaining a permanent charter, the institution's name officially became Teachers College.

In the meantime, as early as 1881, Frederick A. P. Barnard, president of Columbia University, expressed great interest in developing a program of teacher training in his institution. However, the Trustees of the University at that time rebuffed President Barnard in his efforts to establish a department. In spite of great enthusiasm by

New York teachers for a lecture course given by Dr. Butler under Columbia auspices in 1886, the trustees with support from highly vocal critics again turned down such a request. Barnard and Butler then decided to approach the matter by establishing an independent teachers college, hoping later to bring it into organic relationship with the University. The New York College of Training for Teachers proved to be the vehicle. In 1893, a loose affiliation was effected and in 1898 Teachers College became formally the "professional school for the training of teachers" of Columbia University.[8]

Thus, the structural organization and institutional pattern for teacher education in this country had been well established by 1920: teachers colleges of collegiate rank offering degree programs of recognized and acceptable standing among the universities of the country; departments of education in liberal arts colleges, comparable in standing and recognition with the disciplinary departments, providing a major field of study leading to a bachelor's degree; and colleges or departments of education in almost every multipurpose university in the nation, providing a major field of study in professional education at both the undergraduate and graduate levels.

Scope and Nature of the Teacher Education Program

As is evident from a survey of the changes in the structure for teacher education, the nature, scope, and quality of the programs expanded tremendously during these first four decades of the twentieth century.

The normal schools were the subject of much criticism throughout their existence. Collegiate institutions scorned them as being only low-grade training schools often not requiring high school graduation to enter. The proceedings and addresses of meetings of the Department of Normal Schools of the National Education, almost from the time the Department was established in 1866 (a predecessor informal group had been meeting since 1855), are filled with self-incriminations or devoted to plans and proposals for the improvement of the work of these institutions.[9] In 1895, the Department appointed a Normal School Committee of Five to study and report on the work and status of the schools. The Committee submitted its 67-page report in 1899.[10] Interestingly, it was at this same meeting of the N.E.A. that the Committee on College Entrance Requirements submitted its highly influential and significant 192-page report on the high school curriculum and the problem of college admission to the Departments of Secondary Education and Higher Education.

However, Dean James E. Russell, newly appointed Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, offered this appraisal in his 1900 report:

> The normal schools of the country . . . are entitled to more appreciative recognition than has even been accorded them. They have outgrown an infancy in which there was little apparent hope; they have been knocked about by politicians, starved by legislatures, ignored by "scholars"

> and despised by "practical educators." Nevertheless, from the normal schools, weak and undeserving as some of them have been, the public schools have received their strongest teachers.[11]

The significant changes in programs of teacher education during the period of 1900 to 1940 may be grouped into six categories: (1) the raising of requirements for admission to the collegiate-level programs; (2) tremendous expansion in the offerings in professional education and significant upgrading of content; (3) the more extended use of training schools and laboratory and student teaching experiences; (4) the inclusion of course work in the liberal arts, the disciplines, and so-called general education in greatly increased proportions; (5) the upgrading of the staff members of teacher training institutions; and (6) greatly increased levels, relatively, of financial support of these institutions, thus enabling them to carry out the other developments listed.

It is not feasible or necessary, inasmuch as other works cover the subject adequately, to treat those developments in detail.[12] Rugg, in his capsulizing manner, labels the period from 1890 to 1920 as "The Conforming Way: Teacher Education Improvised" and the period from 1920 to 1950 as "The Creative Path: The Makings of Teacher Education Emerge in New University Disciplines." Indeed, a new teacher education concept and program did emerge during the first four decades of the current century.

The reports of two study and survey commissions and a major research investigation of this period merit special attention. The Seventy-First Congress of the United States in 1930 authorized a National Survey of the Education of Teachers. The study extended for three years. It comprised a study of present conditions and practices, problems and issues, and trends in the education of teachers, and proposals for the solution of problems and for the improvement of present practices.[13]

The six volumes present a large body of data, historical information, summary of many investigations pertinent to the subjects of study, analysis of findings on each topic, and a summary statement and interpretation of the entire study. The summary volume concerned itself with three major problems in teacher education (problems that still concern teacher educators today, albeit in a somewhat different context): "(1) to raise the level of education of American teachers (quantity or amount); (2) to make their preparation more distinctly professional (quality or appropriateness); and (3) to bring about a more desirable adjustment between supply and demand among teachers (professional security)."[14]

Nine major recommendations, with subsections, are offered on the first-named problem. Principally they cover standards and legal requirements for certification. Consideration of the second problem covers 118 pages devoted to an analysis of the present situation, description of alternative plans of teacher education, and recommendations

(24 pages alone). For the purposes of this study this paragraph is significant:

> If . . . the curricula for teachers could be based upon a thorough acquaintance with the work that teachers will be called upon to do, and also the things which they should be able to do in order to improve existing conditions, then the prescriptions could be made in terms of providing the best preparation, regardless of majors and minors, in the time available for the specific kind of position for which teachers are preparing. This concept of "competency" in the field if used as a basis for constructing professional curricula for prospective teachers, can do much to correct the present limiting effect of the vested interests of departments which so often interfere with the larger purpose of preparing competent teachers.[15]

Later Evenden further states:

> Prescriptions in preservice curricula for teachers should be designed to produce a "safety-minimum competency" for each type of position. This means that curriculum patterns should be determined by the total range of services to be rendered by teachers and not by departmental regulations concerning major and minor requirements based upon subject-matter relationships instead of the teacher's needs.[16]

The author also gave attention to the matter of measuring teaching merit:

> The task of measuring teaching success is complicated by so many variables for which there are no satisfactory measures that the problem should become a major research problem, adequately subsidized for a long enough period of years to test the results of various types of teacher-curricula.[17]

Unquestionably, the National Survey constituted a major thrust in the efforts of teacher education institutions throughout the nation to upgrade their programs, and of state departments of education and legislatures to set higher standards for teacher licensure and teacher education programs. The influential National Society of College Teachers of Education, in 1935, devoted its Yearbook to an analysis of the National Survey reports and a presentation of its own recommendations, often set in juxtaposition with those of the Survey. On the matter of competency the Society agreed with the Survey report: "Competence in the total work of the teacher should be the criterion for determining curriculum content and arrangement."[18] The Society further stated:

> It is not intended to minimize the importance of knowledge as an essential of the equipment of the teacher, but rather to recognize that knowledge does not insure doing,

> and that a student's qualifications for teaching should be judged in terms of the assurance that he can and will act effectively. Rather than test specific pre-determined information, evaluations should be directed so as to give the student maximum opportunity to use his information and power in a functional way by setting up problems, situations and issues which demand the application of information, the understanding of principles or theories, and the recognition of the implications of positions taken.[19]

The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study has received little attention or recognition from teacher educators since it was published in 1929.[20] Yet, today, it would serve as a highly significant source of data for those developing performance-type teacher education programs. Why the Study had such meager influence, at least directly, on practice is difficult to understand. It is "an orgy of tabulation" exemplifying to the extreme Charters' concept of job analysis as a basis for curriculum planning. Hence, it constitutes an approach to teacher education that is highly repugnant to the child-centered and/or society-centered point of view of the progressive school of educational philosophy and of its practitioners. Moreover, in the immediate years following, many studies of the factors related to teaching success, the traits of successful teachers, and the competencies exhibited by successful teachers were published.[21] These sources provided more usable data for educators, but also illustrated the difficulty of ascertaining traits and competencies directly related to success in teaching. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers began a year later, and it also made an extensive survey of existing practices in teacher education curricula by using questionnaires, tabulating practices and opinions, and counting courses, etc.

Anyway, the Commonwealth Study provides two basic sets of data: "The traits that characterize excellent teachers" and "the activities performed by teachers in service." Eighty-three traits of excellent teachers were listed and defined (Chapter II) and then telescoped into 25 broader categories (Table 1). The list of teachers' activities numbers 1,001 items, and with their definitions covers 168 pages (Section 4). Obviously the Study illustrates the nature of behavioral objectivism and evaluation by performance to the extreme. Imagine a prospective teacher having to demonstrate competency by performance in 1,001 items before he/she could be certified to teach. Perhaps this explains why this job analysis plan for teacher education was never accorded standing in the profession. Charters and Waples devoted two chapters to how one would use the data for revising existing courses and constructing new ones in teacher education institutions.

The most important and significant of the three studies or projects cited here was the work of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. The Commission was established in 1938, and concluded its activities in 1946. Its appointment stemmed from a conference in 1936 that led to the publication of a report, Major Issues in Teacher Education (see Chapter 6).[22] The recommendations and general nature of this report constitutes in a sense the charter for the Commission's program.[23] The Commission's primary purpose was to work cooperatively with selected teacher education institutions (20 were accepted) and school systems (14 were included) in an "endeavor to facilitate the efforts of the various groups and agencies to put into use and test in practice the best available knowledge regarding the problems in the field."[24] This was much the same model of educational improvement used by the Progressive Education Association in the Eight-Year Study, which by 1938 was in the last two years of its project. Interestingly, a few school systems were cooperating in both studies. Although the Commission did not itself engage in either action or pure research, its publications bring together a keenly insightful and critical analysis of problems and issues in teacher education, and a large body of "conventional" wisdom generated by the cooperating agencies, as well as by the staff members and the many consultants invited at various times to contribute to the project. In spite of the fact that World War II soon commanded so much of the energy, time, and money of all citizens--thus diverting educators from what could have been highly significant advances in teacher education in the last few years of the Commission's work and the immediate years thereafter--its work unquestionably had a marked influence in shaping programs of preservice and in-service teacher education in this country in the decades following.

The Professionalization of Teachers

The third significant development in teaching and teacher education during the period of 1900-1940 (approximately) was the great strides taken by teachers themselves to establish a true profession. These efforts may be categorized as follows: The emergence of strong teacher organizations; significantly upgrading the requirements for licensure; a much expanded role in determining policies of the school, planning the curriculum, carrying on action-type research, selecting their own modes of instructions, and the like; tremendously increased body of professional literature; and gaining acceptance by citizens generally of the high level of teaching as a calling.

The National Education Association dates from 1857; the American Federation of Teachers from 1916.[25] The program, activities, and purposes of these two groups surely needs no further attention here. It is desirable, however, to note the role of a larger number of departments of the NEA and of independent professional and learned societies that serve the professional interests of teachers, professors in higher institutions, and other curriculum planners in particular fields or areas of study in the program of the schools. Many of these organizations have had a profound influence on the curriculum, teaching methods, and programs for the preparation of teachers in their respective areas of interest. Such activities date from the early years of this century, particularly following up the report of the Commitee of Ten (1893). Specialized groups were especially active in conjunction with the work of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1918 and a decade or so thereafter). Activities of the Progressive Education Association and the National Council of Teachers of English, already noted, are illustrative.[26]

Of special significance to this study is the founding of associations of the teacher education institutions themselves or their staffs. The American Normal School Association was organized in 1858; beginning in 1866 it met annually with the NEA, and was created as a department in the reorganization of the NEA (National Teachers' Association) in 1870. It disbanded in 1925 and the American Association of Teachers Colleges replaced it as the NEA department. At the same time (1870s) the Department of Higher Education was organized, and the National Association of School Superintendents, founded in 1865, was reconstituted as the Department of Superintendence.[27] The National Society of College Teachers of Education, now renamed as the Society of Professors of Education, was organized in 1902 and issued its first Yearbook in 1911. In 1948, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education was established through the merger of the National Association of Colleges and Departments of Education, the National Association of Teacher Education Institutions in Metropolitan Districts, and the American Association of Teacher Colleges (1917).

Meanwhile, voluntary regional associations of colleges and secondary schools had been organized for the primary purpose of accrediting institutions through a process of election to membership. Most active of these agencies are the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools (1885), the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1895), the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1892), and the Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges (1895). These associations wielded tremendous influence on the development of teacher education programs through the process of accreditation by sets of standards adopted by each group. Often, especially in earlier years, these standards set specific conditions and requirements of an overt, measurable nature for the privilege of gaining such recognition. In 1927, the American Association of Teachers Colleges initiated its own accreditation, setting standards largely based on those of the North Central Association.[28]

The certification of teachers is often claimed to have occurred at the time the first teachers in America were employed by the town fathers in the Massachusetts Bay Colony, and laws throughout the colonial period did specify requirements on which the board should "examine" the candidate before employment.[29] But As Horace Mann pointed out much later (see Chapter 3) and Cubberley treats in detail, such certifying process was usually very superficial or nonexistent. Cubberley summarized the situation at the turn of the century:

> To determine whether or not any individual possesses these educational prerequisites for admission to the profession of teaching, two methods are available. One is to examine the candidate by giving him or her a written or oral examination, or both, the examination to be given either by laymen of the school community or by the professional examining body; and the other is to accept satisfactory

> evidence of proper education and professional training. . . . It is not possible, in most states, under present conditions to use the second method alone, although it is obviously much the better of the two.[30]

Cubberley's study shows the examinations required for a minimum and maximum grade certificate in the states. Frazier's historical study brings the situation up to 1933, with upgrading in 1938 and 1940.[31] Although in the 1933 study he deplored the fact that "many certificates are still issued on the basis of examination or short-time attendance at colleges or normal schools," Frazier summarizes by stating that the trends during the 1920s and early 1930s were to raise "progressively the minimum certification requirements" and to "increase requirements in professional education courses, including student teaching." In 1940 he reported that "during the decade 1930-1940, the rise in the amount of preparation required averaged more than 1 year." Educators throughout these four decades pleaded for a marked increase in the requirements for certification and for improved procedures for issuing them as a basis for the general advancement of teaching as a profession and for the improvement of programs of teacher education.

The most significant movement in the professionalization of teachers, in the long run, was the gradual involvement of teachers in processes of planning the educational programs for students and in participation in decision-making relative to these programs and the operation of the school. Dewey, in what must surely have been a startling essay in that day (1903) and should to this day be a charter for teacher professionalization wrote:

> But until the public-school system is organized in such a way that every teacher has some regular and representative way in which he or she can register judgment upon matters of educational importance, with the assurance that this judgment will somehow affect the school system, the assertion that the present system is not, from the internal standpoint, democratic seems to be justified. . . . The remedy is not to have one expert dictating educational methods and subject-matter to a body of passive, recipient teachers, but the adoption of intellectual initiative, discussion, and decision throughout the entire school corps.[32]

Mayhew and Edwards devote a long chapter to the ways in which Dewey carried out this concept of professionalism in his own laboratory school, including a long statement from Dewey himself on the roles assumed by the staff.[33]

Earlier, attention was directed to the involvement of teachers to a much greater extent and in a much more meaningful role in curriculum planning in state and city curriculum development projects, such as Denver, St. Louis, Winnetka, Detroit, Los Angeles, in the laboratory schools of teacher education institutions, and, especially, the workshops and inservice programs for teachers in the Eight-Year Study, and in the state department program directed by Caswell and others.

Professional literature became available in ever increasing quantities and, undoubtedly, also in quality during these first four decades.[34] Many of the departments of the N.E.A. published journals, yearbooks, and miscellaneous materials, including full-length books, on a great variety of subjects. Various professional organizations, societies, and learned groups, similarly, provided much material for the profession. Commercial publishers added to the list in great quantity.

Gaining the acceptance by the public of teaching as a worthy, prestigious profession of persons with a high level of intellectual ability, integrity, excellent moral character, and a deep-seated concern for children and youth is very difficult to document, but any of us who started teaching careers in the 1920s can personally attest to such a development. The studies cited above on the gradual increase in requirements for certification provide some evidence, but it is much more a matter of spirit rather than statistics. We have come a long way since Benjamin Franklin in 1751 in his proposal for an academy wrote that "a number of the poorer sort will hereby be qualified to act as schoolmasters," or Thomas Jefferson proposed that the "brightest" pupils of the secondary school should go to college and the "next brightest" should become teachers.[35]

In summary, by the time of the onset of World War II, everything had been put together, so to speak, with respect to the art and science of teaching, the planning of educational programs for the children and youth of America, and for the finalization of a structure for education in this country. These are the contributing factors, all quite fully developed by 1940: A new philosophy of education that took account of both the child and the society in which he/she lived; a new psychology that was based on concepts of the complete unity of the person--mind, body, emotions, intellect, drives, motives, sociableness--and that nature and nurture both intermingleably determine human personality; a much broader and deeper conception of the purposes of schooling in a democratic society that encompassed personal development and social consciousness; the development of a scientific approach to the study of educational issues, practice and processes; a spirit of innovation, experimentation, and diversity in seeking to improve schooling; a much more comprehensive program in scope, depth, and methods for the professional education of teachers; a much improved organizational structure for the administration of schools, with higher quality of leadership and services in state departments of education and more insightful and effective leadership in local school systems; and a profession of teachers who possessed the qualifications and training for enlightened service to the nation in teaching, planning, and advocacy.

Footnotes

[1] Strayer, "Teachers, Training of," in Cyclopedia of Education, Vol. 5, ed. Paul Monroe (New York: Macmillan Company, 1914), p. 517.

[2] Benjamin W. Frazier, "History of the Professional Education of Teachers in the United States," in National Survey of Education of Teachers, Vol. 5, Special Survey Studies (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1935), p. 52.

[3] U. S. Commissioner of Education, Report for the Year Ending June 30, 1910, Vol. 2 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1911), p. 1075.

[4] Jessie M. Pangburn, The Evolution of the American Teachers College (New York: Teachers College Press, 1932), pp. 20-21.

[5] Pangburn, The Evolution of the American Teachers College; Charles W. Hunt provides an excellent review of the development of teacher education and the factors that influenced its growth; see his "Toward a Profession of Teaching," in Teacher Education for a Free People, ed. Donald P. Cottrell (Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956), Chapter 2; For other accounts see A. L. Hall-Quest, Professional Secondary Education in Teachers Colleges (New York: Teachers College Press, 1925); and Frazier, "History of the Professional Education of Teachers in the United States," pp. 33-37 and Chapter 4.

[6] "Education, Academic Study of," in Cyclopedia of Education, Vol. 2, pp. 406-407; Pangburn, The Evolution of the American Teachers College, pp. 20-28; and Leigh G. Hubbell, The Development of University Departments of Education in Six States of the Middle West (Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America, 1924), Chapter 1.

[7] Sources of information include the Teachers College Record, Vol. 1, No. 1, January 1900, with articles by James D. Russell and Walter L. Hervey; and Lawrence A. Cremin and others, A History of Teachers College, Columbia University (New York: Columbia University Press, 1954).

[8] A flowery, lengthy essay on some of the leaders in its early years is Harold Rugg's The Teacher of Teachers (New York: Harper and Row, 1952), pp. 28-63.

[9] See especially Journal of Proceedings and Addresses for the Year 1879 (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1879) when the major address was "Attacks on Normal Schools"--an attempt to list the nature of the attacks and then answer them.

[10] National Education Association, Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Thirty-Eighth Meeting, 1899 (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1899), pp. 836-903.

[11] James E. Russell, "The Function of the University in the Training of Teachers," Teachers College Record, 1:6-7, January, 1900.

[12] See especially Pangburn, The Evolution of the American Teachers College; Hubbell, The Development of University Departments of Education in Six States of the Middle West; Rugg, The Teacher of Teachers; the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. II, Teacher Personnel in the United States, Vol. III, Teacher Education Curricula, Vol. 5, Special Survey Studies, and Vol. VI, Summary and Intepretation, Bulletin 1933, No. 10, U.S. Office of Education (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1935); National Society of College Teachers of Education, The Education of Teachers, 23rd Yearbook (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935); Winfield D. Armentrout, The Conduct of Student Teaching in State Teachers Colleges (Greeley: Colorado State Teachers College, 1927); William S. Learned, William C. Bagley and others, The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin No. 14 (New York: The Foundation, 1920); National Society of the Study of Education, The Professional Preparation of High-School Teachers, 18th Yearbook, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1919.

[13] See Footnote 12 for citations for four of the volumes. In addition Vol. 1 is a bibliography and Vol. 4 deals with the education of Negro teachers.

[14] E. S. Evenden, Summary and Interpretation, Vol. VI, p. 27.

[15] Evenden, p. 129.

[16] Evenden, pp. 175-176.

[17] Evendent, pp. 184-185.

[18] National Society of College Teachers of Education, The Education of Teachers, p. 3.

[19] National Society of College Teachers of Education, p. 100.

[20] Werritt W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929).

[21] For a review of this whole matter of teacher competencies see A. S. Barr, "Teaching Competencies," in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 1950 edition, pp. 1446-1454.

[22] American Council of Education, *Major Issues in Teacher Education*, Series I, Vol. II, No. 4 (Washington, D.C.: The Council, February, 1938).

[23] The publications issued by the Commission of importance to this study include: Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, *The Improvement of Teacher Education* (1946), *Teachers for Our Time* (1944); *Bennington Planning Conference for the Cooperative Study of Teacher Education: Reports and Addresses, August 21 to September 1, 1939* (1939); Charles E. Prall, *State Programs for the Improvement of Teacher Education* (1946); Charles E. Prall and C. Leslie Cushman, *Teacher Education in Service* (1944); W. Earl Armstrong, Ernest V. Hollis, and Helen E. Davis, *The College and Teacher Education* (1944); and Daniel E. Prescott and others, *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (1945). See *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, pp. 277-288, for a complete list of publications.

[24] *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, p. 24.

[25] Edgar B. Wesley, *NEA: The First Hundred Years* (New York: Harper and Row, 1957); and American Federation of Teachers, the Commission on Educational Reconstruction, *Organizing the Teaching Profession* (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955). An interesting account of early organizations of teachers is the "Historical Chapter," in National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses: Anniversary Volume, 1857-1906* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1906), pp. 453-460.

[26] Activities of such professional and learned groups is amply treated by Rugg in, *The Foundations and Techniques of Curriculum-Construction*, Chapter 3; see also, Wesley, *NEA: The First Hundred Years*.

[27] National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, Anniversary Volume*, 1857-1906, pp. 524-525 and 536.

[28] Charles W. Hunt, "Toward a Profession of Teaching," p. 34.

[29] An excellent review of certification practices in the nineteenth century is provided by Ellwood P. Cubberley, *The Certification of Teachers: A Consideration of Present Conditions with Suggestions as to Future Improvement*, 5th Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1906). See also

Lucien B. Kinney, Certification in Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964); Anthony C. LaBue, "Teacher Certification in the United States: A Brief History," in The Education of Teachers: Certification, Official Report of the San Diego Conference of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professioal Standards (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1961), pp. 156-181.

[30] Cubberley, The Certification of Teachers, pp. 8-9.

[31] Frazier, "History of the Professional Education of Teachers in the United States," pp. 44-51; Benjamin W. Frazier, Development of State Programs for the Certification for Teachers, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin 1938, No. 12, Part 2 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1938); and Benjamin W. Frazier, "Minimum Certification Requirements for Teachers, School Life, 26:27-29, October, 1940. See also, Katherine M. Cook, State Laws and State Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin 1927, No. 19 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1928); William R. Jackson, "The Present Status of the Certification of Teachers in the United States," in U.S. Commissioner of Education, Report for the Year 1902-1903, Vol. 1 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1905), pp. 463-519; and Harlan Updegraff, Teachers Certificates Issued Under General State Laws and Regulations, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin 1911, No. 18 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1911).

[32] John Dewey, "Democracy in Education," Elementary School Teacher, 4:194-195, 1903.

[33] Catherine Camp Mayhew and Anna Camp Edwards, The Dewey School: The Laboratory School of the University of Chicago, 1896-1903 (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1936), Chapter 18.

[34] An interesting account of the development of professional publications in the nineteenth century is "Educational Journalism," in N.E.A. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, Fiftieth Anniversary Volume, pp. 506-514.

[35] Quoted from the American Association of Teachers Colleges, Yearbook 1922 (Greeley, Colorado: The Association, 1922), p. 7.

PART IV

MOVING TOWARD COMPETENCY-IN-PERFORMANCE PROGRAMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

CHAPTER 6

WHAT SHOULD BE THE NATURE OF TEACHER EDUCATION?

After analyzing developments in teacher education during the first four decades of the twentieth century we are now ready to identify and describe the steps that led directly to the establishment of competency-in-performance programs of teacher education within the past years, analyzing first the literature of what leaders feel should be the nature of the programs for the preparation of teachers.

No new theoretical developments in philosophy of education are apparent. Most writings constitute a re-examination of philosophical concepts already widely promulgated. Harry S. Broudy, Sidney Hook, James McClellan, and others are interested largely in a sound, workable amalgamation of the best of Dewey's broad conceptions of education and the essence of the realist school, particularly Alfred North Whitehead's views of philosophy; Philip Phenix, Robert Hutchins, and Mortimer Adler want to return to essentialism and conservative realism; Theodore Brameld wants Deweyism extended to encompass reconstruction of society; Jerome Bruner, although departing from his own specialty of psychology, advocated a narrow essentialism for a time, but recanted in the famous "we were wrong" speech.[1] The great majority of educators line up pretty much with Broudy and similar writers: Dewey's concepts and lines of development--provided a complete and correct interpretation of the Dewey philosophy is made on the basis of all of his writing, especially those of his later years--constitute the soundest, most valid theoretical base for making decisions about the schooling of children and youth of this country.

In psychology, no new basic concepts have been advanced but a great deal has been done to expand, extend, amplify, and correlate the schools of thought that had already emerged by 1940--connectionism, behaviorism, gestalt, field, organismic, perceptual, and Freudian--particularly with respect to the roles of nature and nurture, cognitive processes, motivation, and self-concepts in human development; the role of self in response to stimuli and the importance of self-images; the highly detrimental effects of failure, an improvident cultural and experiential environment in early years, and absence of desirable adult models of behavior and character for children; and the importance of involvement in discovery and generation of new (for the learner) knowledge, concepts, and understandings. Piaget, Bruner, Combs, Skinner, Carroll, Glaser, Klausmeier, Gage, Hilgard, and many other scholars are busy advancing knowledge on these matters.

Research on teaching, methodology, attributes and competencies of successful teachers, and nature and process of educational improvement, the measurement or assessment of other than sheer factual learning or of personality and character traits, the nature and causes of low levels of understanding and conceptualization by children, and numerous other aspects of the total process of education is still grossly inadequate, often invalid and unreliable, and inapplicable to practice. The "iron monger or guildsman's techniques"[2] of arriving at conventional wisdom, when the consensus of such wisdom is that of the wisest men and women of the profession and of the citizens generally is still the basis for much of our advancement of educational practice.

In ferreting out the antecedents of competency-based programs that occurred during approximately the quarter of a century beginning with 1940, attention will first be given to the ever mounting body of criticism, alluded to in the previous chapter, of teacher education programs in this country. Certainly this welling demand for reform is a major factor in the reformulation of teacher education programs as they exist today.

Criticism of Teacher Education Programs

It was noted in a previous chapter that criticism of the lack of formal preparation of teachers for service in the school occurred about as soon as the schools themselves were established. These attacks led to the establishment of teacher education programs in the early nineteenth century. But in time the programs themselves were the subjects of attack. To understand better recent developments, attention will be given to these deficiencies as noted by educators as well as lay groups.

From the large amount of literature, extending over the past one hundred years or more, three studies by acknowledged authoritative sources will be used to summarize the principal criticisms, with some brief attention to other less highly regarded sources but a high vocalness. Some of the publications state the positions of the group as recommendations for improvement; others overtly as shortcomings of the existing programs.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching Study

One of the earliest, if not earliest comprehensive study of teacher education in this country, was initiated in 1914 by the prestigious Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. On the invitation of the Governor of Missouri to determine "what is the best preparation and what is the duty of the State in meeting it, and how can the State secure the greatest benefit at a minimum expense," the Foundation gathered a large staff of prominent educators and consultants over a period of years to make a most searching and thorough-going study of the professional education of teachers, using the Missouri situation as the base.[3] The printed report (publication was delayed until 1920 by World War I) is a document of 475 pages and covers all aspects of the subject. It should be recalled that the highly influential study of medical education by Abraham Flexner had just been published four years earlier (1910) by the Foundation.

The President of the Foundation, in the "Preface" accords this accolade to the study:

> No teacher in the elementary or secondary or normal schools, or in the school of education of a college or university, can fail to be interested in the effort to do what has been attempted in this report. It represents the first comprehensive formulation of good practice in the largest field of professional training for public service in our country, and it is believed that the work has been done with such care that the results here set forth are worthy of the thoughtful study of every earnest and intelligent teacher.[4]

As the study progressed it became evident that some set of criteria or principles on which to judge a teacher education program was esstential. Hence, the staff prepared a document entitled "Curricula for the Professional Preparation of Teachers" in 1917.[5] It presented "a theory of the preparation of teachers, together with concrete applications in terms of specific curricula, that would be acceptable to the leading students in that field all over the country." The statement "elicited an extraordinary amount of valuable comment and criticism from representative sources."[6] Thus, the final report, drawing on such supporting material, presents in the form of comprehensive findings and recommendations what is the first widely accepted and used set of criteria and concepts for the development of teacher education in this country. However, it is proper to point out that it never had the impact on teacher education that the Flexner report had on medical education.

In his annual report for 1919, while the report was in press, President Pritchett made this sweeping, but highly significant, comment:

> So far as the state can provide education, the teacher is the substance of it. The measure of our past and present deficiency is startlingly revealed by the manner in which we have persistently evaded this fact. Education has been much, and on the whole reverently, on our lips, but so little have we grasped its purport that the sole factor which can give it reality and meaning, namely the teacher, is grossly ill-equipped, ill-rewarded, and lacking in distinction. . . . Where is the school system that by enlightened and fearless propaganda has convinced its public that education consists first of all in the superior quality and skill of its individual teachers, and is otherwise meaningless?[7]

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers presents a large body of information on the status of teacher education in this country in the early 1930s. In the summary volume, E. S. Evenden, one of the most highly regarded teacher educators of that period, brings together a lengthy set (176 pages) of recommendations, with the supporting data, for the improvement of teacher education. Evenden, for the staff of the survey, explains the nature of the recommendations in these terms:

> The three problems selected for presentation in this volume are: (1) to raise the level of education of American teachers (quantity or amount); (2) to make their preparation more distinctly professional (quality or appropriateness); and (3) to bring about a more desirable adjustment between demand and supply among teachers (professional security). These were chosen because they are important problems in need of immediate attention and are so inclusive that nearly every Survey study contributes directly or indirectly to the solution of one or more of them.[8]

In spite of the voluminous sets of recommendations for each of these areas, and Evenden's plea for "solution of one or more of them," they still exist today, perhaps in even more intensified form than in the 1930s.

The National Society of College Teachers of Education, using galley proofs of the National Survey, issued a Yearbook in 1935 which reviewed the recommendations of the Survey staff, and presented its own set of principles and recommendations on each of these three problems.[9] The Yearbook committee agreed with many of the major recommendations of the Survey staff, but stated some important disagreements with other statements. The Committee then presents chapters in which they state their recommendations on each of the three areas of concern, and provide examples of good teacher education programs that exemplify these desirable elements.

Commission on Teacher Education Project

The year following the publication of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers (1936), the American Council on Education "began to give the matter of teacher education serious consideration." A conference was held in 1937, following which (1938) the Council published a report, *Major Issues in Teacher Education*,[10] that served as the base and, in large part, the charter for the establishment of the work of the Commission on Teacher Education (see Chapter 5). Interestingly, this statement of the problems facing teacher education appeared exactly one hundred years after the establishment of the first teacher-education institution of America.

Inasmuch as the Council's report brings together in excellent manner the accumulation of decades of criticism and the implied deficiencies of teacher education programs in the other reports cited above and the writings and addresses of countless teacher educators and committees, the issues identified will be listed as the essence of the problems inherent in teacher education programs just prior to World War II:

> The objectives of teacher education need a thorough revision and restatement.
>
> Prospective teachers possess a very inadequate understanding of child nature and its implications for teaching.
>
> Means of attracting and selecting better students in the institutions for the education of teachers should be developed.
>
> Members of the staff in teacher education institutions often lack essential preparation and an understanding of education.
>
> Teachers, especially secondary school teachers, often lack adequate preparation in the subjects in which they teach.
>
> Too many teachers enter service with inadequate experience in practice teaching.
>
> Teachers are inadequately prepared for creative activities in the conduct of their work.
>
> Teachers lack understanding of other educational agencies in the community with which they should cooperate.
>
> Teacher education institutions often lack contact with the social and the educational problems of the schools within their region.
>
> In-service training programs for teachers should be greatly extended and improved.
>
> Competition among institutions for student enrollment constitutes a menace to the integrity of professional education for teachers.
>
> The present system of teacher certification is very unsatisfactory and should be changed.
>
> The financial support of institutions for the education of teachers is inadequate.[11]

The Council concluded that "The new task confronting teacher education is, in part, the breaking down of the control of tradition and outworn practices and, in part, the building up of new concepts of education and a creative approach to the problem of teaching."[12]

The first endeavor of the Commission on Teacher Education was a conference at Bennington, Vermont, in 1939, of representatives from the Commission staff, of each of the participating teacher education institutions and school systems, and selected consultants. The first objective of the conference was the "clarification of the major problems in teacher education." Participants met in groups by type of institution. Each group prepared a report on "Major Problems of Teacher Education." These lists were then collated into a statement of 12 problems recommended for study by the conference. In turn, this statement became the basis for the work plans of the cooperating institutions. The list of major problems or areas for study in the five-year project adheres rather closely to the major issues defined by the parent American Council on Education but differs enough to merit inclusion here (title captions are used here; the report states each problem in a detailed question form):

> The relation of general and specialized education;
> The personality of the teacher;
> The teacher's understanding of child development;
> The teacher's understanding of American culture;
> The arts in teacher education;
> The teacher, the school and the community;
> Personnel problems;
> Institutional organization for teacher education;
> Articulation among related groups and institutions;
> Evaluation of teacher education programs;
> Incentives to teacher growth;
> Democratic participation in teacher education programs.[13]

From the three major reports on the professional preparation of teachers cited thus far emerges a rather high degree of consensus on what constituted the most serious problems, issues, and deficiencies of teacher education programs three decades ago.

Other Reports of Interest

A few other reports, statements, and essays on the subject published in the years since 1940 will be noted briefly, but little of serious import will be evident. First, brief notice may be taken of Harold Rugg's criticism of these commission studies. Writing in his senior years as if he had been the first to discover a social foundation for teacher education or the necessity of a creative component he said:

> On the whole, therefore, the studies of these commissions were made by men brought up in the framework of the first professors of education and reflected their point of view. . . . There is in them little concern with the problem of educational theory, and not even a rudimentary outline of an esthetic foundation can be seen. The historical and philosophical foundations were little more than a modified "history and philosophy of education" of the 1920 vintage. . . . The gains that I consider important in all these

> years of tinkering with the mass teachers college programs, lay in a slightly more personalized psychology and in a changing conception of curriculum and teaching.[14]

The Steering Committee and Task Force of the National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth held a series of seminars in 1966-1968 to "clarify the problems and issues which confront teacher education and assess the long-range needs of teacher education." In a strident introduction to the report of these meetings, Committee members state:

> There is smugness where there should be concern; complaining "jams" the few voices urging true innovation and change. The moderate and mild control the destiny of education. . . . They desire change but the change is only modest tinkering. They wish to repair the system by replacing worn-out parts.[15]

The Committee lists four major areas in teacher education that must be reformed (only lead sentences quoted):

> The current situation of remoteness of the prospective teacher from the realities of classroom practice must be reformed.
>
> Anti-intellectualism of teachers can no longer be condoned.
>
> The schools must allow persons with different capacities to function where they can be most useful.
>
> Teacher preparation reform must stress the ability to conceptualize and analyze, which is the essence of scholarship.[16]

Is this what the Committee meant when they said "What is needed is radical reform?"

For a historical perspective, Josiah Royce's famous essay, "Is There a Science of Education?" (1891) should be noted. This renowned Harvard philosopher answered:

> There is no "science of education" that will not need constant and vast adaptation to the needs of this teacher or of that, constant modification in the presence of the live pupil, constant supplementing by the divine skill of the born teacher's instincts. . . . Universally valid your "system" never can be; therefore hold it not as a system. . . . There is no universally valid science of pedagogy that is capable of complete formulation, and of direct application to individual pupils and teachers. Nor will there ever be one so long as human nature develops, through cross-breeding in each new generation,

> individual types that never were there before; so long as history furnishes, in every age, novel social environments, new forms of faith, new ideals, a new industrial organization, and thus new problems for the educator.[17]

In 1946, the National Education Association established the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards and charged it with responsibility for carrying forward a continuing program for the improvement of the profession. The Commission held a series of three conferences in 1958, 1959, and 1960, in which representatives from 55 professional or learned societies and organizations participated. The first, known as the Second Bowling Green Conference, was devoted to the topic, "The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives." Four major topics were considered extensively during the meeting: (1) The Purposes of Education--Implications for Teacher Education and Elements in the Teacher Education Program; (2) Subject-Matter Preparation; (3) Professional Preparation; and (4) Putting the Program Together. The four chapters that summarize the deliberations on these subjects provide very useful material in the consideration of the problems and issues facing teacher education in the 1950s and 1960s.[18] The statements do not add importantly to the statements cited previously in this section, so will not be included here. It is important to note that the whole matter of "standards," both with regard to the requirements for certification of teachers and accreditation of the teacher education institution, had become an increasingly important topic of discussion. In fact, the 1960 conference was devoted entirely to the matter of teacher certification.[19]

One of the most controversial reports on teacher education was made by James B. Conant in 1963. He and his staff visited 77 institutions in 22 states, examining programs, catalogs, syllabi, and textbooks and conferring with professors, administrators, state officials, students, and teachers in service. Much of the report is devoted to the governance and control of teacher education programs, especially certification and the accreditation of institutions. However, chapters are devoted to the academic and professional preparation of prospective teachers, practice teaching, and inservice education.[20] He makes 27 recommendations of a highly specific nature, especially disdaining any overt effort to base these on a theory of education, instruction, or of teacher education, except as one may extrapolate bits of theory from the proposals. In general, Conant sought to decrease markedly the control of the teacher education institutions or department over the certification process, over the student teaching experience, and, collectively, their control over accreditation of the institutions themselves. The state department of education would become the prime agency in the preservice teaching experience program and the certification process, and the entire faculty of an institution the agency for determining the preparatory programs for teachers.

One of the most insightful and helpful books, especially for this paper, is a report of a pilot project in teacher education conducted by Seymour Sarason, Kenneth Davidson (psychologists) and Burton Blatt, a teacher educator.[21] First the little book contains an excellent summary of some of the major problems and issues in teacher education, and the controversies and proposals for the solution of these matters. They present the views of such critics as Jerome Bruner, Hyman Rickover, James Koerner and his coworkers in the Council for Basic Education, but also of teacher educators themselves. Then they turn to their own concern: "If one described the activities in which a teacher engages and the problems she encounters, to what extent would one find that her teacher-training experiences constitute a relevant and adequate preparation?"[22]

After presenting a lengthy record of "A Classroom," a report of what goes on in a typical classroom, the authors describe a pilot project designed to help teachers understand what happened in classrooms, how teachers behave in a great variety of situations, and the meaning of all of this for the preparation of the prospective teacher for service. Their conclusions:

> Improvement of the quality of teaching is not likely to take place in any marked kind of way by merely increasing the amount and variety of information which teachers should have. . . . A second implication . . . is that the traditional ways in which teachers have been trained barely comes to grips with the question of how one maximizes the possibility that a teacher's practice harmonizes with principles of learning and development. . . . What are desperately needed are studies which have as their aims a detailed description of what goes on between neophyte and supervisor, and explication of the principles which presumably underlie the ways in which this learning experience is structured and handled, the values implicit in these principles and their execution, the efficacy of the experiences which do or should precede practice teaching, and the development of procedures that would allow us to evaluate the effects of practice teaching on the neophyte teacher, procedures which would be better than private opinion.[23]

Sarason and his colleagues are especially pointed in their criticism of the methods and curriculum materials courses of the teacher education program:

> It is these courses which have been among the main targets of the critics of teacher training, and rightly so. Aside from their time-consuming nature, these courses, which admittedly are "practical" in aim, are usually very impractical, in that students find them of no great help. . . . There is little

> doubt that the major defects of the methods courses, in particular, are threefold. First, the emphasis is on how to teach certain subject matter, but this rarely is accompanied by opportunities for the student to try out the methods. Second, where the student does have such opportunities it is usually of short duration, and supervision is minimal or nonexistent. Third, and this is felt most keenly by students, what the students obtain in these courses too often has little relevance for teaching a class of children who vary considerably in their achievement in any particular subject matter or skill.[24]

In reviewing the criticisms of and controversies about teacher education, attention should also be directed to Borrowman's excellent analysis of the respective emphasis given to general education and technical education by the institutions.[25] He presents various points of view on this subject, beginning with Horace Mann's plans and continuing to the early 1950s. It is a scholarly and comprehensive analysis of thought about the education of teachers, and traces the efforts to design adequate programs in both aspects of preparation.

Essential Elements in Programs for the Preparation of Teachers

The planning of a competency-based program of teacher education necessitates a definitive, comprehensive delineation of the purposes and goals of such a program. An analysis of the antecedents of the movement to competency-based programs requires that overt consideration now be given, in addition to the casual references or inferences earlier, to such historic efforts to identify and define the elements that should comprise a teacher education program.

Five methods have been and still are being used to define the nature, scope, and purposes of teacher education:

> A priori deductions of the elements in a program of teacher education that would enable the teacher properly to perform his/her role.
>
> Detailed analysis of what a teacher does as he/she guides the schooling of students.
>
> Common sense or conventional wisdom on what constitutes good teaching, and hence, postulation of the training desirable to enable him/her to perform such service.
>
> Research data on the success and failure, or adequacy and inadequacy of teachers in classroom situations, and hence, postulation of what should be included in the training program.

> Judgment of planners, utilizing all or some of these sources.

Early Points of View

The ancient Athenian and the early British and German philosophers--Aristotle, Plato, Kant, Thomas Aquinas, John Stuart Mill, John Locke--what little they treated the matter at all, relied almost entirely on a deductive process of defining the qualifications of a teacher, then assuming that preparation, if any, should cultivate these qualities. Primarily they emphasized character, morals, exemplification of good citizenship, rational thought, and a knowledge of the subject which they taught.

It was not until the nineteenth century that technical skill in the methodology of teaching is recognized as a necessary qualification of teachers. Pestalozzi, Froebel, Montessori, and Rosseau especially emphasized the need for training teachers in the technology of teaching. They advocated new approaches to education, utilizing first-hand experience, natural development of the person, and the like, and this called for teachers trained in the use of their concepts of schooling and techniques of working with children.

In this country, the school committees of colonial days were expected to select teachers on the basis of character and morals and on a knowledge of the subjects to be taught. It was not until the time of Horace Mann, Francis Wayland, DeWitt Clinton, Henry Barnard, and John Carwright that the technical skills of the teacher assumed major importance as a qualification. In the minds of its founders and early developers the normal school was to provide three types of training: knowledge of the subjects to be taught, skills in teaching such subjects, and a sense of professionalism among teachers. As Borrowman so well points out, almost from the beginning of teacher education, however, pleas were made for a broader type of program--one that would include more depth in a study of the traditional subjects of the curriculum, and work in what came to be labeled as general education.[26] The attacks on normal school programs, noted earlier, were in part directed at the narrowness of the program, especially to the neglect of liberal studies, studies in the disciplines, aesthetics, and theoretical courses in professional education itself.

Dewey's Views on Teacher Preparation

In a highly significant essay, John Dewey, who from his first writings on pedagogy sought to develop a theory of education and of instruction, discussed "The Relation of Theory to Practice in Education." He, of course, recognized the importance of both aspects of training, but insisted that practice work should always be based on and lead to the development of principles and sound theory:

> Two controlling purposes may be entertained so different from each other as radically to alter the amount,

> conditions, and method of practice work. On one hand, we may carry on the practical work with the object of giving teachers in training working command of the necessary tools of their profession; control of the technique of class instruction and management; skill and proficiency in the work of teaching. With this aim in view, practice work is, as far as it goes, of the nature of apprenticeship. On the other hand, we may propose to use practice work as an instrument in making real and vital theoretical instruction; the knowledge of subject-matter and of the principles of education. This is the laboratory point of view (1904).[27]

After discussing this point of view at length, Dewey summarized:

> Nothing that I have said therefore is to be understood as ruling out practice-teaching which is designed to give an individual mastery of the actual technique of teaching and management, provided school conditions permit it in reality and not merely in external form--provided that is, the student has gone through a training in educational theory and history, in subject-matter, in observation, and in practice work of the laboratory type, before entering upon the latter.[28]

Throughout a lifetime of writing, Dewey stressed repeatedly the importance of a broad education for teachers always leading primarily to basic principles and theories, both in the subject-matter and professional education fields. Note this additional commentary:

> The training of teachers is no longer a mere matter of equipping students having a somewhat inadequate prior intellectual preparation with the means by which to deal with the immediate problems of the schoolroom. The simple discovery that education is first of all a problem for study, for investigation and research, and a problem so complex and diversified as to demand prolonged and thorough training, marks in itself almost a revolutionary departure from older attitudes (1928).[29]

Dewey continuously expressed concern about the social responsibility of the schools and the role of teachers in fulfilling this responsibility. In a guide for discussion in the National Council of Education, he raised questions on this issue and said:

> . . . . apart from and prior to consideration of changes in actual school programs, curricula and methods, the teaching body, as a body, should arrive through discussion within itself at conclusions concerning the direction which the work of the schools should take with respect to social conditions. . . . there should be a clearer idea obtained, through discussion within the teaching body,

> of the existing handicaps to the realization by the school of its social function. This would include the state of the teaching body, and the question of how far it may be better prepared for social participation and leadership, including both teachers in service and the changes which would be required in training schools (1930).[30]

Other Views

James E. Russell, then only recently appointed dean of Teachers College at Columbia University, in an address to the Department of Superintendence of the NEA in 1899, listed four essential aspects of the preparatory program for teaching in the secondary schools: (1) general knowledge, (2) professional knowledge; (3) special knowledge, and (4) skill in teaching.[31]

In 1905, the Secondary Education Department of the NEA appointed a Committee of Seventeen on the Professional Preparation of High School Teachers. It reported to the Department at its 1907 meeting. Preeminent educators, readily recognized by name today, were members of the Committee--Ellwood P. Cubberley, Charles DeGarmo, Paul H. Hanus, Charles H. Judd. The report lists 12 recommendations on teacher preparation in the same four areas Russell recommended earlier: Specialized study of subjects to be taught, courses in other fields to provide general education, professional courses, and observation and practice teaching. The committee advocated a minimum of four years of college, based on high school graduation, and strongly recommended, even at that early date, a year of graduate study.[32]

The Proposals of the Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study

The report of the Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study, already noted in Chapter 5, was an exhaustive effort to list the activities in which teachers engage. It constitutes the most extensive use of the job-analysis technique for planning the program of preparation for service in the profession. The staff of the study identified and defined 83 "Traits of Teachers" and classified the activities of teachers into these major categories:

- Teachers' Activities Involved in Classroom Instruction
    - Teaching Subject Matter
    - Teaching Pupils to Study
- Teachers' Activities Involved in School and Class Management
    - Activities Involved in Recording and Reporting Facts Concerning Pupils
    - Activities Involving Contacts with Pupils
- Activities Involving Supervision of Pupils' Extra-Classroom Activities
- Activities Involving Relationships with the Personnel of the School Staff
- Teachers' Activities Involving Relations with Members of the Community

Activities Concerned with Professional and Personal Advancement
Activities in Connection with School Plant and Supplies[33]

Recommendations of the Commission on Teacher Education

The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, already cited in the previous section, presents very important statements on the qualities of teachers and goals for teacher education in its summary volumes. The "Qualities Needed in Teachers" listed and discussed are as follows:

A. General
Respect for Personality
Community-mindedness
Rational Behavior

B. Professional
Increasing Knowledge
Skill in Mediating Knowledge
Friendliness with Children
Understanding Children
Social Understanding and Behavior
Good Citizenship in the School and Society
Skill in Evaluation
Faith in the Worth of Teaching[34]

The goals of teacher education programs, identified at the Bennington Conference, are these:

The Development of

1. Traits that make for rich personality and for effective participation in democratic living
2. Attitudes and habits favorable to continuous self-improvement both as person and as professional worker throughout the teaching career
3. Understanding the ways and means of guiding wisely the growth and development of children
4. Skill and knowledge essential to scholarly teaching in a chosen field or fields
5. Understanding of and devotion to democratic values
6. Understanding of the role of education, the school, and the teacher in a democratic society
7. The habit of active participation in important activities in the community[35]

The John Dewey Society Reports

The John Dewey Society, organized in 1937, devoted its 1st and 4th Yearbooks to the role and responsibilities of teachers. In the 1st Yearbook, Goodwin Watson used these section captions to discuss the "Preparation of Teachers": Need to Understand Modern Society; Range of Social Experience; Social Participation; Education in a Democracy; Selection for Leadership; Aids to Leadership; Enjoyment of Life; and Inservice Education.[36]

In the 4th Yearbook, Robert Koopman, writing on the abilities of teachers, listed these as the professional proficiencies every teacher should gain:

1. In participation in group thinking situations and in contributing to the leadership of such situations
2. In surveying and analyzing the natural and cultural landscapes with particular reference to community processes and in utilizing the data in developing an improved educational program
3. In observing the individual learner and in organizing such observations into meaningful interpretations of the growth processes of the learner to be used in guiding learning and growth
4. In participating with learners in the derivation of effective teaching-learning policies, procedures, and units of instruction
5. In evaluating educational programs and the specific outcomes of learning experiences of individual learners
6. In interpreting the educational program to the public[37]

In yet a later yearbook, Hollis Caswell wrote at length on the competencies required to meet current needs by a general, core, or guidance teacher and by the special-interest teacher.[38]

Other Significant Proposals for Teacher Education

William H. Kilpatrick, one of the most ardent adherents to the Dewey philosophy, made a stirring plea for the social education of the teacher in The Educational Frontier, a book widely discussed during the 1930s.

> Professional education must thus hold as its central and dominating feature the building of an inclusive and criticized outlook upon life and education. . . . In building such a general outlook as a philosophy of life, the social element becoming the orientating essential. . . . As far, then, as possible the specific preparation of the prospective teacher, both broadly and narrowly conceived, should be carried on through the

> process of helping him educatively to raise to more adequate self-directive efforts in his own life and work. . . this life and work of the student-teacher--again in both its broad and specific aspects--should, as far as we can effect it, be part and parcel of the surrounding existing social life (1933).[39]

In a brilliant essay, in a comprehensive look at teacher education by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the distinguished teacher of teachers, Florence Stratemeyer, writes at length on the professional training aspects of teacher education. She writes from a broad philosophical viewpoint, stating at the outset that the professional sequence should provide the

> . . . elements which help in understanding children and youth, the learning process, the use of methods and materials in instruction, evaluation of pupil growth, planning the curriculum, cooperative school administration, and the broader problems of the profession as they relate to American society and function of the school.[40]

The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, established by the NEA in 1946, launched the "Project on New Horizons in Teacher Education and Professional Standards" in 1959. Its purpose was "to develop definitive statements" on various aspects of teacher education, certification, accreditation, and professionalization. The report of the task force of the project presents a large body of recommendations on these various subjects. The book lists the characteristics of a person who qualifies as a professional and then treats at length the nature of a teacher education program that would be desirable to prepare professional teachers. These are the attributes of a professional teacher:

> Is a liberally educated person
>
> Possesses a body of specialized skills and knowledge related to and essential for performance of his function
>
> Is able to make rational judments and to take appropriate action within the scope of his activities, and is responsible for the consequences of his judgments and action
>
> Places primary emphasis upon his service to society rather than his personal gain
>
> Actively participates with his colleagues in developing and enforcing standards fundamental to continuous improvement of his profession and abides by those standards in his own practice

Practices his profession on a full-time basis

Is engaged in a continuing search for new knowledge and skill.[41]

It is also appropriate in this section to include the five basic areas of study, or courses as they were designated, proposed by the Teacher Education and Media Project of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. This study dealt only with the professional component of preservice teacher education. The five "courses" are as follows:

I. Analytical Study of Teaching. Behaviorally the prospective teacher should be able to apply aspects of the several analytical techniques to a given teaching example and explain or demonstrate the meaning and significance of the concepts identified.

II. Structures and Uses of Knowledge. Behaviorally, the prospective teacher should be able to analyze content, put elements of the knowledge in instructional form and assess certain logical operations performed in teaching the content.

III. Concepts of Human Development and Learning. Behaviorally, the prospective teacher should be able to analyze a selected learning situation in terms of its cognitive elements and processes, differentiate between levels or modes of representation of learning and identify cognitive tasks.

IV. Designs for Teaching-Learning. Behaviorally, the prospective teacher should be able to develop a learning experience designed to assist children and youth in the formation of concepts.

V. Demonstration and Evaluation of Teaching Competencies. Behaviorally, the prospective teacher should demonstrate his competence in a number of behaviors or behavioral areas, evaluate the demonstrated competence and plan for his professional growth.[42]

The National Institute Steering Committee and Task Force of the National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth prepared a valuable report of the elements that should be included in the education of teachers. At one point, in considering "An Approach to Systematic Training," the Task Force lists these "minimal abilities which a program of teacher education should develop":

1. Perform stimulant operations (question, structure, probe)
2. Manipulate the different kinds of knowledge
3. Perform reinforcement operations

4. Negotiate interpersonal relations
5. Diagnose student needs and learning difficulties
6. Communicate and empathize with students, parents, and others
7. Perform in and with small and large groups
8. Utilize technological developments
9. Evaluate student achievement
10. Judge appropriateness of instructional materials[43]

However, other chapters of the report treat extensively preparation of teachers in subject matter, knowledge about the use of knowledge, and governance of the profession, so it would seem that the above list refers only to the technology of teaching, not the entire range of competencies needed.

Footnotes

[1] See Jerome S. Bruner, "The Process of Education Reconsidered," in *Dare to Care/Dare to Act*, ed. Robert R. Leeper (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1971), pp. 19-30.

[2] James B. Conant, *Trial and Error in the Improvement of Education* (Washington, D.C.: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965).

[3] William S. Learned, William C. Bagley, and others, *The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools: A Study Based upon an Examination of Tax-Supported Normal Schools in the State of Missouri*, Bulletin No. 14, The Carengie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (New York: The Foundation, 1920).

[4] Henry S. Pritchett, "Preface," in *The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools*, p. xvi.

[5] Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, *Curricula Designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools* (New York: The Foundation, 1917).

[6] *The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools*, p. 4.

[7] Henry S. Pritchett, *Fourteenth Annual Report of the President and of the Treasurer* (New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1919), p. 100.

[8] E. S. Evenden, *Summary and Interpretations*, Vol. 6, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Bulletin 1933, No. 10 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1935), pp. 65-241.

[9] National Society of College Teachers of Education, *The Education of Teachers*, 23rd Yearbook (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935).

[10] American Council on Education, *Major Issues in Teacher Education*, American Council on Education Studies, Series I, Vol. II, No. 4 (Washington, D.C.: The Council, February, 1938).

[11] American Council on Education, pp. 10-21.

[12] American Council on Education, p. 43.

[13] American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, *Bennington Planning Conference for the Cooperative Study of Teacher Education* (Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1939), pp. 26-27, 33-92.

[14] Harold Rugg, *The Teacher of Teachers: Frontiers of Theory and Practice in Teacher Education* (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1952), pp. 62-63.

[15] B. O. Smith, Saul Cohen, and Arthur Pearl, *Teachers for the Real World*, Developed by the NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969), p. 8.

[16] *Teachers for the Real World*, p. 9.

[17] Josiah Royce, "Is There a Science of Education?" *Educational Review*, 1:15-25, 121-132, January, February, 1891; republished and quoted from Merle L. Borrowman, *Teacher Education in America: A Documentary History* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1965), pp. 110-112.

[18] National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *The Education of Teachers: New Perspectives* (Washington, D C.: The Association, 1959), pp. 3-46. A lengthy and popular report of all three conferences, and review of the criticisms being leveled at teacher education at that time is G. K. Hodenfield and T. M. Stinnett, *The Education of Teachers: Conflict and Consensus* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961).

[19] National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *The Education of Teachers: Certification*, Official Report of the San Diego Conference, 1960 (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1961).

[20] James B. Conant, *The Education of American Teachers* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963).

[21] Seymour B. Saranson, Kenneth S. Davidson, and Burton Blatt, *The Preparation of Teachers: An Unstudied Problem in Education* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1962).

[22] Sarason, Davidson and Blatt, p. 2.

[23] Sarason, Davidson and Blatt, pp. 117-118, 116.

[24] Sarason, Davidson and Blatt, pp. 101-102.

[25] Merle L. Borrowman, *The Liberal and Technical in Teacher Education: A Historical Survey of American Thought* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1956).

[26] Borrowman.

[27] John Dewey, "The Relation of Theory to Practice In Education," in *The Relation of Theory to Practice in the Education of Teachers*, 3rd Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1904), p. 9.

[28] Dewey, p. 28. For an extended analysis of Dewey's early views on the qualities and the training of teachers see the brilliant essay by Arthur G. Wirth, "An Image of the Teacher and the Dynamics of the Classroom," in his *John Dewey as Educator: His Design for Work in Education (1894-1904)* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966), Chapter 5.

[29] John Dewey, "The Direction of Education," *School and Society*, 27:496, April 28, 1928. Also reprinted in and quoted from Joseph Ratner (ed.), *Education Today* (New York: G. P. Putman's Sons, 1940), p. 201.

[30] John Dewey, "The Duties and Responsibilities of the Teaching Profession," *School and Society*, 32:189, August 9, 1930. Reprinted in *Education Today*, p. 225.

[31] James E. Russell, "The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools," in National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, 38th Annual Meeting, 1899 (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1899), pp. 285-296.

[32] National Education Association, Secondary Education Department, "Report of the Committee of Seventeen on the Professional Preparation of High-School Teachers," in National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Forty-Fifth Meeting*, 1907 (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1907), pp. 523-668.

[33] Werrett W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929).

[34] American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, *Teacher for Our Times* (Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1944), pp. 154-173.

[35] American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, *The Improvement of Teacher Education* (Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1946), pp. 36-37.

[36] Goodwin Watson, "Preparation of Teachers," in The Teacher and Society, 1st Yearbook, John Dewey Society (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1937), Chapter XII.

[37] G. Robert Koopman, "Abilities of Teachers in Democracy's Schools," in Teachers for Democracy, 4th Yearbook, The John Dewey Society (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940), p. 88.

[38] Hollis L. Caswell, "Teachers for Tomorrow's High School," in The American High School, 8th Yearbook, The John Dewey Society (New York: Harper and Row, 1946), Chapter X.

[39] William H. Kilpatrick, "Professional Education from the Social Point of View," in The Educational Frontier, 21st Yearbook, National Society of College Teachers of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933), pp. 262-271-272.

[40] Florence B. Stratemeyer, "The Professional Sequence in Teacher Education," in Teacher Education for a Free People, ed. Donald P. Cottrell (Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956), p. 145.

[41] Margaret Lindsey (ed. and dir.), New Horizons for the Teaching Profession, National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards Task Force (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1961), p. 6.

[42] Herbert F. LeGrone, A Proposal for the Revision of the Pre-Service Professional Component of a Program for Teacher Education (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1964).

[43] Smith, Cohen and Pearl, Teachers for the Real World, p. 71.

CHAPTER 7

FACTORS LEADING TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF PROGRAMS OF COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

After examining in previous chapters the conceptual framework in which teacher education was developing and the general nature and character of programs at about midpoint in this century, consideration will now be given to some important specific factors and developments that provided the final push to the establishment of formal, organized programs of competency-based teacher education.

Application of Systems Models to Planning and Evaluation

Account should be taken at this point of the advocacy and development of a systems approach to educational planning, organization, and administration, including the planning for teacher education. However, the use of systems models in all aspects of educational planning is now so well known and used that only brief reference will be made to the movement, although its significance in the development of competency-oriented programs of teacher education is all-pervasive.[1]

A systems model of planning consists of defining fully, overtly, and as explicitly as feasible the purposes for which the system is to be planned or the goals to be served; identifying and taking into account in planning the factors, conditions, external controls, available resources and social realities that are pertinent to the achievement of the goals; recognizing and providing for the interrelationships among the elements in the universe under development; determining methods, procedures, programs, processes, subsystems and facilities and resources that promise to provide the best programs for achieving the goals; evaluating the effectiveness of the program in achieving goals; on the basis of the evaluative data, deciding on the validity of goals, and retain, modify or eliminate; and, then, concluding whether to continue, revise, or discontinue the program.

The Teacher Education and Media Project of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, although it did not fully exemplify a complete systems model of planning, nevertheless was an early attempt to apply the concepts of such an approach to the reform of teacher education.[2]

The most extensive and thorough-going application of systems planning to teacher education is the project sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education for the preparation of models for the education of teachers for elementary schools. Initiated in 1967, and known as the Comprehensive Elementary Teachers Education Models, models were prepared by nine institutions or agencies. The published models cover about 6,000 pages and include in them, individually and collectively, an extensive treatment of the purposes, goals, and objectives of teacher education, the factors to be considered in planning such programs, and detailed plans for the education of teachers, taking account of the many elements that comprise a universe in such programs.[3] For the purpose of this paper, it should be noted that these models constitute for workers in the field of teacher education the best and most comprehensive statements of the role of the teacher in the education of the child, the purposes and goals of teacher education programs, and the competencies needed by teachers to fulfill adequately such a role.

In addition to the use of a systems approach to the planning of educational programs at a wide range of levels of sophistication, it is being used in the management of educational programs. These efforts, often inept and grossly lacking in a genuine use of a systems concepts as developed in business and industrial management, are grouped under such descriptive terms as "planning, programming, budgeting systems," "management by objectives," and "management information services."

The relationship of systems models of planning and/or management and competency-in-performance teacher education programs is apparent. The competency concept is simply the basic and fundamental first step in systems planning. Vere DeVault points this out in his analysis:

> If a system is to maintain itself, it must ensure the adequacy of its output. This means the teacher education program must continually assess the degree to which its graduates possess the desired competencies and adjust the system accordingly. The program must also treat the desired competencies as assumptions whose relationships to pupil outcomes must be validated. . . . Commitment to a competency based systems approach to the teacher education program implies a parallel commitment to the use of a systems approach in designing the program.[4]

Research on Teacher Behavior, Effectiveness, and Competencies

Unquestionably, a significant factor in the development of competency-in-performance teacher education programs has been an extensive body of research and analytical studies on the teacher behaviors in classrooms, interaction analysis of classroom communication, and the logic of teaching; on the effectiveness of teachers in teaching and factors conducive to effectiveness; and on the competencies exhibited by teachers or expected of them. A brief review and citations to important literature on these matters will be made.

Research on Characteristics of "Good" Teachers

Efforts to determine the characteristics or traits of "successful" teachers as contrasted with those of "poor" teachers, or to identify the classroom behaviors or methodology of "successful" teachers as contrasted with those of "poor" teachers were made informally, but not "scientifically" by Socrates, for he frequently ridiculed or attacked the methods being used by the Sophists of his time. And so the evaluation of teachers continued by school authorities, parents, and citizens alike on an a priori concept of what a teacher ought to be like until John M. Rice initiated extensive studies he labeled "scientific management" of the schools in 1902. This is the beginning of the testing movement in American education, and Rice used his tests to try to ascertain why results differed so widely among the schools. His conclusion: "The theory is simply this, that success in teaching, as measured by results, is primarily dependent upon something inherent in the teaching, the nature of which will become clear as we proceed."[5]

Rice examined his data extensively to try to find what it was that explained high results in some schools, but none of the measurable factors proved valid. He even spent considerable space rejecting the idea that good teachers are "born and not made." He summarized, finally, the "two fundamental conditions of success":

> (1) A well-defined, but reasonable, minimum demand, based, first, upon a clear conception of the ideal end, and, secondly, upon a knowledge of what a fairly good teacher is able to accomplish in the desired direction; and (2) a clearly defined method of judging to what extent each teacher is meeting that demand. Expressing these ideas in homely phraseology, we have the simple proposition that the essential conditions of successes in pedagogy, as elsewhere, are _to know what you want and to see that you get it_ (1904).[6]

A number of other leaders in the scientific movement of the 1910s and 1920s, such as S. A. Courtis, Leonard P. Ayers, and Edward L Thorndike, had endeavored to investigate the characteristics of teachers,[7] but it remained for A. S. Barr, who devoted a life-long career to this area of study, to attempt to bring this whole movement together in the 1930s and 1940s.[8] In his analyses for both the 1940 and 1950 editions of the _Encyclopedia of Educational Research_, Barr provides excellent reviews of studies on efficiency made prior to 1940, and then a long tabular summary of "Aspects of Teachers or Teaching and Certain Criteria of Teaching Success," in the 1950 edition. This latter analysis is organized in these categories: Personal Qualities (14 items), Competencies (13 items), Effects of Teacher Leadership (1 item), Behavior Controls (20 items), and Status Facts (12 items).[9]

David Ryans conducted an extensive study of teacher characteristics for the American Council on Education in the late 1950s.[10] He identified by an elaborate process these ten teacher characteristics for further study and correlation with a number of factors, similar to those used by Barr in the analysis cited above:

> Pattern X - warm, understanding, friendly versus aloof, egocentric, restricted teacher classroom behavior
>
> Pattern Y - responsible, businesslike, systematic versus evading, unplanned, slipshod teacher classroom behavior
>
> Pattern Z - stimulating, imaginative versus dull, routine teacher classroom behavior
>
> Characteristic R - favorable versus unfavorable opinions of pupils
>
> Characteristic R_1 - favorable versus unfavorable opinions of democratic classroom procedures
>
> Characteristic Q - favorable versus unfavorable opinions of administrative and other school personnel
>
> Characteristic B - learning-centered ("traditional" or "directive") versus child-centered ("permissive" or "indirective") educational viewpoints
>
> Characteristic I - superior verbal understanding (comprehension) versus peer verbal understanding
>
> Characteristic S - emotional stability (adjustment) versus instability
>
> Characteristic V - validity of response versus invalidity of response[11]

In 1950, the American Educational Research Association established a Committee on the Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness. The Committee published two reports[12] that constitute an effort by a number of specialists in this area of study to clarify and establish procedures for defining criteria of teacher effectiveness, which it pointed out really is a question of "what is effective teaching?" The Committee stated that

> The ultimate criteria of teacher effectiveness are posited to be in terms of changes in pupil behavior, changes in the operation of the school, or changes in the community in its relation to the school. Conceivably, the changes may be more significant as criteria long after formal schooling has ceased than at the time of the teacher's performance. . . . The problem of predicting teacher effectiveness is one of predicting that a teacher will produce certain changes in pupil behavior . . . .

> Determining the predictors of the ultimate criteria (changes in pupil behavior) is the essence of the problem of determining teacher effectiveness.[13]

Recent studies and developments in the measurement of teacher effectiveness are summarized very well in the two most recent editions of the Encyclopedia of Educational Research and in the Chapter, "The Teacher's Personality and Characteristics," in Handbook of Research on Teaching.[14]

Studies of Classroom Behaviors

In recent years considerable research has been done on teaching behaviors in the classroom, verbal communication among teacher and students, and the logical analysis of teaching. The basic investigations have been concerned with the analysis of what transpires in classroom patterns of instruction and management processes and with the development and refinement of methods, instruments, and procedures for studying classroom transactions rather than the characteristics of teachers, such as personal traits, personnel data, education, experience and the like. Moreover, at the outset, the primary interest was analytical rather than evaluative or predictive. However, more recently other researchers are using these procedures and instruments to ascertain whether behaviors could be used as criteria for determining teacher effectiveness in producing the changes the AERA Committee accepted as the ultimate criterion.

The pioneer work in these efforts to establish a new dimension for studying teaching was done by and under the direction of David Ryans, B. Othanel Smith, Arno Bellack, and Ned Flanders. However, Ryans' study was concerned also with other teacher characteristics, and, then, in correlating the three types of classroom behaviors he (listed above) identified with the ten traits. The behavioral approach to research on teaching and teacher effectiveness expanded by leaps and bounds; by 1967, Simon and Boyer identified 26 observational systems and by 1970, 79 systems or techniques of some degree of comprehensiveness.[15]

Inasmuch as excellent reviews and analyses of this approach to a study of teaching are availabile,[16] it is not necessary to extend the treatment here. These studies and projects have contributed in most important ways to the development of programs of competency-in-performance teacher education for they provide a large body of experience, techniques, instruments, and methodology in analyzing and evaluating teaching performance in classroom situations.

Investigations of Desirable Competencies

The third aspect of these interwoven efforts to study teaching and teachers is identification of the competencies that teachers should exhibit. Such statements are implied or overtly listed in a more-or-less formal manner from the earliest discussions of teaching as process. Competencies can readily be postulated from the writings of Plato, the dialogues of Socrates, or the essays of Aristotle. Certainly, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Montessori, Herbart, Spencer--in fact almost any writer on teaching and the work of teachers--treats in at least broad terms the competencies that teachers should possess.

Although a cursory examination does not reveal use of the term itself in the works of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, DeWitt Clinton, and the other pioneers of the teacher education movement in this country competencies of two kinds are clearly envisioned in their concepts of teacher traning: knowledge of the subjects to be taught and skills in teaching the subjects. These traits are also desired: high moral character, friendliness, understanding, sympathy, and interest in the profession.

In the earlier studies and writings on teachers the terms usually used are "qualifications," "standards," "equipment," "elements," or "abilities" rather than "competencies." Most of these terms refer to something done to the teacher, presumably by the teacher preparing process, rather than qualities of the person. Certification of teachers is an effort to prescribe, in part at least, the qualifications to be possessed by teachers, as evidenced by external items of data. The term "competency" is used a few times in the exhaustive sets of recommendations of the staff of the National Survey of Teacher Education:

> This concept of "competency" (the work that the teacher will be called upon to do, and the things which they should be able to do in order to improve existing conditions) in the field if used as a basis for constructing professional curricula for prospective teachers, can do much to correct the present limiting effects of the vested interests of departments which so often interfere with the larger purpose of preparing competent teachers.[17]

Although the term "competency" appears occasionally in the numerous publications of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council, the concept of competency-in-performance is not considered at all in the context in which it is used today. Throughout the Commission's reports, principal emphasis is given to the objectives of teacher education, the qualities of teachers, and the courses and methods by which these qualities may be developed. Attention is centered primarily on what teacher education institutions should do to students preparing for teaching, rather than what the neophyte teachers themselves should be able to do in directing the schooling of students. One notable exception was the efforts at Ohio State University, a cooperating institution, to develop the "Ohio Teaching Record." The report on the project states the approach:

> In October 1939, faculty supervisors, student teachers, and some sixty cooperating teachers in the Columbus schools began to explore together the problem of evaluating teachers' effectiveness. They set for

> themselves the task of identifying a great many activities in the classroom which might reveal the teacher's competence. They described literally hundreds of situations in which, they believed, the quality of competence in fulfilling instructional responsibilities would be observable.[18]

Joining in the efforts in the 1930s to evolve a more functional and meaningful program of education in the common schools, a number of colleges in addition to those participating in the Commission's project engaged in an extended program of self-study and self-development. A notable example of such a teacher education institution's program was the "Experiment with the General Curriculum" at Central State Teachers College, Mount Pleasant, Michigan. The staff of this college approached the development of a more challenging general education program for prospective teachers on the concept of "needs in all areas of life." The staff identified four areas of relationships: (1) the area of social relationships, (2) the area of family relationships, (3) the area of personal relationships, and (4) the area of vocational relationships. Needs were then identified in three categories--ability to meet life-situations, knowledges and understandings, and appreciations of worth or value--in each of the first three areas. This resulted in 20 pages, closely printed, of lists of functional needs of students.[19] These lists, although not stated in such a format, could readily be used as a basis for defining competencies needed by teachers in the three areas of general education.

The 13 categories which Barr used in the 1950 Encyclopedia of Educational Research to summarize studies of the competencies of teachers are worthy of attention:

A. As a Director of Learning

1. Skill in identifying pupil needs
2. Skill in setting and defining goals
3. Skill in choosing learning experiences
4. Skill in creating favorable mind set (Motivation)
5. Skill in the following learning process:
    a. In providing for individual differences
    b. In making activities meaningful
    c. In locating and overcoming difficulties
    d. In organizing experiences into meaningful wholes
    e. In supervising study
    f. In directing discussion
6. Skill in using learning aids
7. Skill in teacher-pupil relations
8. Skill in appraising pupil growth and achievement
9. Skill in management
10. Skill in instruction

B. As a counselor and friend of pupils

C. As a member of the profession

D. As a member of the community[20]

In 1954, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education adopted a resolution that said that

> . . . any program or procedures, to be accepted as valid, must have been established as contributing to the preparation of expert teachers. It is recognized that a definition of this desired product [presumably "expert teachers"] in objective terms, such as is now under study and development by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, is a preliminary requirement for such validation.[21]

The Commission accepted the challenge and intensified its efforts to provide this definition. A special group made a report to the Albany Conference of NCTEPS in 1954, based on an earlier report of the California Council on Teacher Education. The NCTEPS group identified "six distinct roles of the teacher," in each of which specific expertness is required.

Roles of the Teacher in Promoting Pupil Growth

1. A Director of Learning
2. A Counselor and Guidance Worker
3. A Member of the School Community
4. Mediator of the Culture
5. A Link with the Community
6. A Member of the Profession[22]

It is to be noted, in light of present developments in teacher education, that the term "performance," "performance criteria," or "competency-in-performance" appeared only in the 1950s (if this present examination of the literature is reliable) and then primarily as a philosophical concept rather than as a model for planning. Hollis Caswell advocated this approach to teacher education in an address to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education in 1951. He said:

> . . . a guide in organizing the professional sequence is that it should be organized primarily in relation to performance responsibilities. . . . In preparation for a profession the primary objective is to teach the student to do something. The whole educational effort fails unless the student can carry on effectively the activities required in professional performance.[23]

A few years later, his colleague, Florence Stratemeyer, seconded his position, stating that "experiences in the professional sequence should be selected and organized with reference to performance responsibilities--teaching situations to be met and educational problems to be solved--rather than logical subject-matter relationships per se.[24]

More than ten years later, the performance concept became the rationale for the basic element in the models of nine plans for the preparation of elementary school teachers prepared under the aegis of the U.S. Office of Education for the Comprehensive Models for Preparing Elementary Teachers project. For example, Rosenshine and Furst, in a summary, point out that the Michigan State Model specified more than 2700 modules, in many of which evaluation is based on trainee behaviors; the Massachussetts Model requires "the specification of instructional and program goals in terms of behaviors to be exhibited by the trainee"; and the Teachers College, Columbia University, Model contains 818 educational specifications.

These investigators point out that:

> This focus on performance criteria probably developed from two sources. The first is the emphasis in current literature on behavioral objectives in instruction. The second source is undoubtedly the series of experimental studies which have been conducted in teacher education. These studies were designed to determine whether training procedures could modify the behavior of the teacher as measured by systematic observation. The results of these investigations indicated that training procedures which focused on denotable, specific behaviors were more effective than traditional methods in changing teacher behaviors. Hence an emphasis on specifics--i.e. on performance criteria--seemed desirable to the planners of the model programs.[25]

It also seems evident that the drive to use a systems approach to planning and management in various aspects of education, which requires an overt, specific definition of goals and objectives of a program whose attainment is measurable on some basis has been a major factor in the movement to performance based programs of teacher education.

Cautions on Use of Competency Criteria

However, as anyone familiar with the Performance-Based Teacher Education Project of AACTE knows, criticism of the movement has been pronounced. As early as 1962, four years prior to the model teacher education project, Margaret Lindsey had some very pointed comments and recommendations on efforts to nail down the elements constituting teaching effectiveness and performance in classrooms:

> In retrospect, it can be observed that researchers in the past appeared to make large assumptions and proceeded to jump into the middle of the problem. For example, it seemed to be assumed that if one could establish a positive relationship between a series of discrete teacher behaviors and a similar series of isolated pupil outcomes, the sum of the pieces would form an integrated whole of teacher behaviors and pupil outcomes. . . . The persistent search for a description of the ideal teacher has been frustrating even to the researchers themselves. . . . Critiques of research . . . make very clear that our task is something other than a search for a single definition of the ideal teacher. . . . Behavior is modified through many different kinds of experience often occurring side by side in the lives of people. Furthermore, changed behavior is frequently, if not always, the result of accumulated experiences. Thus, it would appear very difficult to relate changed behavior of a pupil to specific action by a teacher.[26]

As Lindsey goes on to point out, any effort to judge teacher effectiveness, or, it may be implied, the merits of a set of classroom behaviors, depends finally on a value system of whoever seeks to make such a judgment--beliefs about the purposes of a school, the function of subject matter, the characteristics of classroom climate conducive to the growth and development of students, the extent to which individual differences of students should be considered in schooling, and a whole host of such views about education. Parenthetically, that is the reason this analysis has devoted so much attention to at least some of these very matters--purposes, classroom climates, modes of teaching, nature of experience, etc. Lindsey summarizes well this point: "There is no such a thing as a judgment outside the framework of a system of values. There can be no definition of expertness in teaching unless the definition is couched in a statement of values."[27]

David Ryans elaborates this same point of view:

> When we talk about teacher evaluation we always proceed from the context of an accepted value system. . . . And value judgments, and the value concepts and systems on which they are based, grow out of highly personal biases, preferences, beliefs, opinions, and attitudes we hold as individuals. To the extent that any group of persons share in common certain expectancies and biases about teachers and teaching, "good" teaching may be defined for that particular group. This means that it is a responsibility of any group that is undertaking teacher evaluation to define what constitutes "good" or "poor" teaching for that group.[28]

In the same set of essays, B. O. Smith writes very insightfully about the efforts to evaluate teacher behavior and effectiveness.

Commenting on previous studies he observes that two kinds of criteria have usually been used: pupil achievement, defined in various ways, and sets of characteristics or behaviors to which the teacher's performance is to conform, or a set of classroom behaviors or atmospheres which is attributable to the teacher's characteristics or behaviors. Smith rejects both of these approaches:

> The criterion of achievement, it is said, is fraught with difficulties because of its complexity. . . . Achievement may be defined in terms of the immediate instructional objectives, in terms of the success of pupils in subsequent courses, or in terms of success in life. . . . The other criterion is open to the objection that it embodies implicitly a conception of teaching that may be, and often is, loaded with preferential elements. Pedagogical doctrines and dogmas may thus easily be built into such a criterion.[29]

Smith then makes some proposals that merit serious attention of teacher educators:

> If we start out to determine teacher effectiveness, we will ask the wrong questions and come up with the wrong answers. This claim is supported by fifty years of failure to come up with research findings that indicate ways of discriminating among teachers. The direction in which research needs to be oriented is that of determining the dependability of diagnoses and treatments. We need to carry on research that will indicate the effects of different ways of dealing with subject matter and children. . . . We begin to think in terms of the effects of different teaching and management operations independently of who is performing them. . . . The first task of research is to build a body of pedagogical knowedge. Then it will be possible to speak of teaching behavior in terms of its known effects. This is the primary condition of evaluation.[30]

His conclusion:

> It seems likely, however, that no wholesale evaluation of the teacher is possible. Teaching is far too complex and too involved in various types of affective and cognitive learnings and reactions to permit a general evaluation of a teacher. This means that the evaluation of a teacher's work must always be specific. . . . There is no more reason to expect a teacher to be skillful in teaching for all objectives of instruction than there is to assume that physicians should be equally skillful in all aspects of medicine.[31]

This same general approach to the whole matter of teacher effectiveness, teacher behaviors in classrooms, and teacher competencies was strongly supported by other researchers. Benjamin Bloom, for example, points out that

> . . . some researchers have taken the position that it is the teaching, not the teacher, that is the key to the learning of students, that is, it is not what teachers are like but what they do in interacting with their students in the classroom that determines what students learn and how they feel about learning and about themselves.[32]

Harvey Averch and his coworkers at the Rand Corporation have brought together the evidence from a large number of studies and reports on the effectiveness of the schools in educating children and youth. They extend Bloom's point of view:

> There is some weak evidence that the impact of an educational practice may be conditional on other aspects of the situation. Simply stated, this hypothesis argues that teacher, student, instructional method, and, perhaps, other aspects of the educational process interact with each other. Thus, a teacher who works well (is effective) with one type of student using one method might be ineffective when working with another student having different characteristics, or when using another method. The effectiveness of a teacher, or method, or whatever, varies from one situation to another.[33]

A set of research papers on teacher effectiveness prepared for a conference held by the U.S. Office of Education in 1970 brings together a great deal of information and some important statements of viewpoints on the subject. An observation by Don Davies, Associate Commissioner of Education, is pertinent here:

> Few would doubt that individual teachers do have a tremendous influence on individual children. We cannot evaluate a teacher's competency in teaching reading or math without also evaluating his ability to interact with the child he is teaching. A child's basic needs go beyond reading and math. They include the need for dignity and respect for another human being whom he can trust. A teacher who cannot meet human needs is not likely to meet educational needs.[34]

Stephen Michelson, in his paper, concludes that

> Whatever the outputs desired, whatever the ways to train teachers to induce these outputs in children, what the foregoing does imply is that the structure of the training must respond to differences in the children who will be under the teacher's care. . . . Since different students will respond differently to different

> styles, attitudes, activities, language, strictness, etc. these properties of teacher activities should be investigated and directed to teachers who need them.[35]

But in responding to the papers, Robert Gagné sounds this pessimism:

> If an administrator or policymaker asks the question "What do teacher characteristics have to do with the outcomes of school learning," the answer should be "We have no way of answering that question at present. First, we have no measures of learning outcomes worthy of the name. Second, we have inadequate measures of input. And third, even if we had such measures the question about teacher characteristics should not be asked until we know better what processes the teacher is employing to insure learning.[36]

Another significant effort in recent years to analyze the effectiveness of teachers and teaching is the studies on relationship of the instructional mode or technique to the attributes of students. Lee Cronbach and Richard Snow, who have brought together the findings of a large number of research studies and two of their own studies, refer to this aspect of teaching as aptitude-treatment interaction (ATI). They state the matter this way:

> Assume that a certain set of outcomes from an educational program is desired. Consider any particular instructional treatment. *In what manner do the characteristics of learners affect the extent to which they attain the outcomes from each of the treatments that might be considered?* Or, considering a particular learner, *which treatment is best for him?*[37]

Based on their studies, they conclude that learning results most effectively when the interactive process (teaching) is one that is best suited to the individual student in terms of his/her learning style--a learning environment that is "optimal for one person is not optimal for another." They plead for an extensive body of sophisticated research that will enable teachers to select the most appropriate teaching method, or, on occasion deliberately select one that the student should experience so that he/she broadens the scope of interactive processes that are effective. They conclude:

> The long-range requirement is for an understanding of the factors that cause a pupil to respond to one instructional plan rather than another. . . . The range of instructional procedures open to the educator is enormous. . . . There is no reason to assume that an eclectic mixture of all methods will serve all kinds of pupils, or that the choice of methods is a function of subject matter alone.[38]

In summary, as long as schooling of a formal kind has been carried on among the young, philosophers, parents, citizens, law-makers, and the teachers themselves, have opined, postulated, and, then, analyzed by research, often pseudo in nature, the traits, characteristics, or competencies that are associated with success or failure in teaching. During the past half century or so, these conclusions have dominated the formulation of programs in institutions of higher learning for the training of teachers. Although some modest correlations have been established in gross, general ways between selected factors and teaching success, which, often, were quite inadequately or even wrongly defined, the studies have been seriously inadequate as a basis for carrying out a program of teacher education in terms either of its broad scope or specific aspects.

Within the past decade and a half researchers have introduced a new dimension to a study of teaching--the nature and character of the interactive process among teacher and students itself. Attention centered on what happens in classrooms, what teachers do in directing the schooling of students, and what students do in carrying on learning activities. Much of such research to date has been concerned only with verbal interaction, although some attention has been given to nonverbal behavior. More recently, building on these researches and extending the parameters of interactive research, investigators have been concerned about the relationship between an individual student's attributes and/or learning styles, however these may be defined, and the effectiveness of a particular instructional method or treatment technique.

Hence, teaching is now seen as an interactive process that depends on three agents--the teacher, the student, treated individually, and the environmental situation, or conditions in which the interaction proceeds. Any effort to study teacher effectiveness or factors conditional to success in the schooling process must take account of these three basic elements. Teacher education programs, therefore, must provide the training that will enable a teacher to select the most valid and proper teaching procedures to enable each student to attain the goals envisioned. Any program of teacher education based on competency-in-performance must include such competencies among those being developed by its students.

Footnotes

[1] The literature on systems planning is now voluminuous. Among good references oriented to planning teacher education programs see Dan W. Andersen and others, *Competency Based Teacher Education*, Books I and II (Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1973), Chapter 2 Book I, and all of Book II: Kathryn V. Feyereisen, A. John Fiorino, and Arlene T. Nowak, *Supervision and Curriculum Renewal: A Systems Approach* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1970), Chapters 3 and 7; Donald Haefele (comp.), *Systems and Modeling: Self-Renewal Approaches to Teacher Education* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1971).

[2] For descriptions of the project and examples of models used in rethinking teacher education see Herbert F. LaGrone, *A Proposal for the Revision of the Pre-service Professional Component of a Program of Teacher Education* (1964); John R. Verduin, *Conceptual Models in Teacher Education* (1967); *Professional Teacher Education: A Programmed Design Developed by the AACTE Teacher Education and Media Project*, Books I and II (1968) (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education).

[3] For a brief analysis of each model and bibliographies of the published models and other materials see Joel L. Burdin and Kalipee Lanzillotti, *A Reader's Guide to the Comprehensive Models for Preparing Elementary Teachers* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969).

[4] M. Vere DeVault, "Systems Approach Applications in Designing Teacher Education Programs," in *Competency Based Teacher Education*, Book II, pp. 22-23.

[5] John Meyer Rice, "English (continued). The Need for a New Basis in Education," *The Forum*, January-March, 1904. Reprinted in his book, *Scientific Management in Education* (New York: Hinds, Noble and Eldredge, 1912; Republished by Arno Press in 1969), p. 227.

[6] Rice, p. 238.

[7] An excellent summary of studies of teaching ability and teacher traits during the early decades of this century is Gilbert L. Betts, "The Education of Teachers Evaluated Through Measurement of Teaching Ability," in National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. 5, *Special Survey Studies*, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin 1933, No. 10 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1935), pp. 87-153.

[8] See Arvil S. Barr, Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1929); and, with others, The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency: A Summary of Investigations (Madison, Wisc.: Dembar Publications, Inc., 1948); also published in Journal of Experimental Education, 16:203-83, June, 1948.

[9] Arvil S. Barr, "Teaching Competencies," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 1950 edition, ed. Walter S. Monroe (New York: Macmillan Company, 1950), pp. 1446-1454. Charles W. Sanford and J. Lloyd Trump also treat the subject briefly in their article in the same volume, "Teacher Education-Preservice Selection," pp. 1391-1893.

[10] David G. Ryans, Characteristics of Teachers: Their Description, Comparison, and Appraisal (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1960). See also his articles, "Research on Teacher Behavior in the Context of the Teacher Characteristics Study," Contemporary Research on Teacher Effectiveness, eds. Bruce J. Biddle and William J. Ellena (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964), pp. 67-101; "Predictions of Teacher Effectiveness," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 1960 edition, ed. Chester W. Harris (New York: Macmillan Company, 1960), pp. 1486-1491; and "Teacher Behavior Can Be Evaluated," in Pi Lambda Theta, The Evaluation of Teaching (Washington, D.C.: Pi Lambda Theta, 1967), pp. 43-64.

[11] Ryans, "Research on Teacher Behavior in the Context of the Teacher Characteristics Study," pp. 76-78.

[12] American Educational Research Association, Committee on the Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness, "Report of the Committee," Review of Educational Research, 22:238-263, June, 1952; and "Second Report of the Committee," Journal of Educational Research, 46:641-658, May, 1953.

[13] "Second Report of the Committee," p. 642.

[14] Harold E. Mitzel, "Teacher Effectiveness," and David G. Ryans, "Prediction of Teacher Effectivness," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 1960 edition, pp. 1481-1491; Ned A. Flanders and Anita Simon, "Teacher Effectiveness," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 1969 edition, ed. Robert L. Ebel (New York: Macmillan Company, 1969), pp. 1423-1437; J. W. Getzels and Philip W. Jackson, "Teacher's Personality and Characteristics," Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally Publishing Company, 1963), pp. 506-582.

[15] Anita Simon and E. Gil Boyer, Mirrors for Behavior: An Anthology of Classroom Observation Instruments, Vols. 1-6 (1967), and Vols. 7-14 (1970) (Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools).

[16] Barak Rosenshine and Norman Furst, "The Use of Direct Observation to Study Teaching," and Ira J. Gordon and R. Emile Jester, "Techniques of Observing Teaching in Early Childhood and Outcomes of Particular Procedures," *Second Handbook of Research on Teaching*, ed. Robert M. W. Travers (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1973), pp. 122-183 and 184-117. Also, another review by Rosenshine and Furst, although labeled "performance," is an excellent analysis of a large number of studies of teacher behavior: Barak Rosenshine and Norman Furst, "Research on Teacher Performance Criteria," *Research in Teacher Education, A Symposium*, ed. B. Othanel Smith (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971), pp. 37-72.

[17] E. S. Evenden, *Summary and Interpretation*, Vol. 6, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin 1933, No. 10 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1935), p. 129.

[18] Maurice E. Troyer and C. Robert Pace, *Evaluation in Teacher Education* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1944), p. 183.

[19] Kenneth L. Heaton and G. Robert Koopman, *A College Curriculum Based on Functional Needs of Students* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936).

[20] Barr, "Teaching Competencies," pp. 1451-1452.

[21] Robert N. Bush, "A Definition of Professional Competence for Teaching," *Eighth Yearbook*, The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1955), p. 128.

[22] Bush, pp. 131-132.

[23] Hollis L. Caswell, "The Professional Sequence in Teacher Education," *Teachers College Record*, 52:336-337, March, 1951.

[24] Stratemeyer, "The Professional Sequence in Teacher Education," *Teacher Education for a Free People*, ed. Donald P. Cottrell (Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956), p. 150.

[25] Rosenshine and Furst, "Research on Teacher Performance Criteria," p. 38.

[26] Margaret Lindsey, "Expertness in Teaching: Approaches to the Study and Definition of Professional Competence," *Professional Imperatives:*

Expertness and Self-Determination, Official Report of the Fort Collins Conference, 1962, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (Washington, D.C.: The National Education Association, 1962), pp. 91-94.

[27] Lindsey, p. 95.

[28] Ryans, "Teacher Behavior Can Be Evaluated," pp. 50-51.

[29] B. Othanel Smith, "Teaching: Conditions of Evaluation," *The Evaluation of Teaching*, pp. 66-67.

[30] Smith, pp. 70-71.

[31] Smith, p. 84.

[32] Benjamin S. Bloom, "Innocence in Education," *School Review*. 80:340, May, 1972.

[33] Harvey A. Averch and others, *How Effective Is Schooling? A Critical Review and Synthesis of Research Findings*, Final Report to the President's Commission on School Finance (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1971 (Catalog No. Pr 37:8: Sch. 6/ Sch. 6/2)), p. xii.

[34] Don Davies, "Foreword," *Do Teachers Make a Difference? A Report on Recent Research on Pupil Achievement* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1970 (Catalog No. HE 5.258:58042)), p. iii.

[35] Stephen Michelson, "The Association of Teacher Resourceness with with Children's Characteristics," *Do Teachers Make a Difference?* pp. 150-151.

[36] Robert M. Gagne, "Policy Implications and Future Research: A Response," *Do Teachers Make a Difference?* p. 172.

[37] Lee J. Cronbach and Richard E. Snow, "Individual Differences in Learning Ability as a Function of Instructional Variables," Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, March, 1969 (available as ERIC Document No. 029 001), p. 6.

[38] Cronbach and Snow, p. 177.

PART V

SUMMARY OF THE SEARCH FOR ANTECEDENTS OF COMPETENCY-IN-PERFORMANCE PROGRAMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

CHAPTER 8

RÉSUMÉ AND COMMENTARY

Teacher education programs are inevitably an interrelated aspect of a scheme for the education of students; hence the preparation of teachers for service in the common schools of a nation must be within the context of planning and carrying out a program of schooling for children and youth. The values, beliefs, and aspirations of a social group about the schooling of its young constitute the framework within which a design for the preparation of teachers for those schools must be planned, structured, and implemented. In analyzing and commenting on development antecedent to the present movement to establish teacher education programs based on the concept of competency-in-performance it is desirable therefore to state a position about the functions of school in a society, and the nature and process of schooling to fulfill these functions.

A Framework for Analyzing Antecedent Developments

Functions of the School

A nation establishes a systems of schools to serve interrelatedly (but varying degrees of emphasis over a period of time and from nation to nation are evident) these basic functions:

1. Transmission of culture: Contribute significantly to the acquisition of knowledge, learning skills, concepts and generalizations, values and beliefs, and traditions by the young.

2. Socialization of the young: Assist other social agencies, especially the family, in inducting the young into the life of the group, particularly with respect to modes of behavior and conduct, customs, mores, folkways, and family and social relationships.

3. Preservation of the nation: Contribute to an understanding of the basic social structures and institutions, the tenets of nationalism, and the history of the nation, develop loyalties to the nation, inculcate basic values, and foster a national solidarity.

4. Preparation for adulthood: Assist in career planning and vocational preparation and develop interest in and skills for lifelong learning.

5. Personal development: Contribute to an assessment and development of talents, capabilities, and potentialities, identify and awaken interests, enjoyments, and satisfactions, develop skills of rational thought and action, contribute to mental and physical wellbeing, and foster a deep-seated concern for the wellbeing of the people of the social group and the larger world community.

The Structure of Schooling

The education of the young comprises these aspects:

1. Acquisition of knowledge and skills in cognitive processes.

2. Development of values, beliefs, feelings, satisfactions, and enjoyments.

3. Attainment of skills of learning, rational action, manipulation, and social interaction.

The Process of Schooling

Schooling the young involves these steps:

1. Determining the educational, social, and personal needs of each student.

2. Defining general goals and subgoals for a program of schooling, and formulating objectives for segments of instruction.

3. Planning appropriate segments of learning experiences for each student.

4. Guiding students in carrying out sets of learning activities.

5. Evaluating the extent to which students attain goals and objectives.

6. As appropriate, redefining goals and objectives and, on that basis, replanning further sets of learning activities.

7. Continuing the process.

The Nature of Teacher Education

The primary, if not the sole, function of a program for the preparation of teachers is to enable a teacher to fulfill to as high a degree as possible the responsibilities and duties embedded in the carrying out of the functions of the school and in directing the process of schooling.

For purposes of analysis of and planning, a program of teacher education should encompass these unitary, but distinguishable, aspects:

1. Development of the teacher as a person.
2. Preparation of the teacher for his/her role as a teacher.
3. Induction of the teacher into the profession.
4. Enhancement of the teacher as a member of the social group.

Values, concepts, and beliefs inherent in these four aspects of development constitute the parameters for analyzing and commenting on programs designed for the preparation of teachers.

The Teacher as a Person

In Chart 1 an attempt has been made to summarize succintly, but admittedly inadequately, the points of view of selected philosophers on the purposes of education, the nature of teaching, and competencies needed by teachers. A more extended presentation is made in Chapters 2 and 4.

Inasmuch as the ancient Greek philosophers considered the ultimate aim of education to be the perfection of man, to enable man to exemplify the highest moral virtues, to attain happiness by engaging in activities of the highest intrinsic value in living virtuously, and to acquire knowledge desirable in achieving these ends, the ideal teacher would be a person who best embodies these characteristics. He would be a person who could serve as a model for the youth in the development of moral standards, piety, and wisdom.

Professional training and preparation in the sense the term is used today was not a matter of concern, except as Socrates in his own teaching demonstrated the method of the dialogue, questioning, and discussion and ridiculed the lecture-expository procedures of the Sophists. In the modern era less consideration--often none at all--was given by educational philosophers and practitioners explicitly and overtly to matters of the characteristics of the teacher qua person, and their development, except as there is, of course, a basic assumption that all life experience, including formal schooling, contributes to the development of the character and personality of any individual. It is recognized that a person is the product of a great multiplicity of hereditary and

Chart 1

Views of Selected Philosophers on Education and Teaching

Educational Philosopher	Primary Purpose of Education	The Nature of Teaching (Stated or Implied)	Competencies Needed by a Teacher (Stated or Implied)
Socrates, Plato & Aristotle	To develop virtue, wisdom, and happiness among men; "those who are rightly educated generally become good men;" "education makes a man eagerly pursue the ideal perfection of citizenship;" virtue should be taught, but it is based on knowledge and sound reasoning; happiness of man that "will be an activity according to the highest form of goodness, namely speculative wisdom."	The Socratic method involves the use of dialogue, questioning, disputing hypotheses and postulates, leading the student to form his own conclusions and principles through reasoning; student to gain wisdom and knowledge through his own efforts, and participation, not through passive listening.	Highly virtuous in his/her own right; ability and skill in directing students to arrive at principles and concepts; select stories and music, and other materials that contribute to virtue, good citizenship, and manliness, or purity for girls; treat students as individuals, working with each one to develop character, virtue, and widsom.
George W. F. Hegel	"The final purpose of education is liberation and the struggle for still higher liberation; education is the absolute transition from an ethical substantiality which is immediate and	Hegel spoke against individualization in instruction--must bring individual in harmony with ideals; the child's interests and play are not appropriate to education; must seek to develop harmony between man and his universe.	Maintain rigid discipline; must show pupils way to change instinctive behavior into a second, intellectual form of behavior, making this intellectual level habitual; help students move to a unity of man and nature with man supreme.

Chart 1 (continued)

Educational Philosopher	Primary Purpose of Education	The Nature of Teaching (Stated or Implied)	Competencies Needed by a Teacher (Stated or Implied)
	natural to one which is intellectual and so infinitely subjective and lofty enough to have attained universality of form." "Education is the art of making men ethical."		
Friedrich Froebel	To enable man to unify the world and himself so as to attain a state of perfection; to lead "man as a thinking, intelligent being growing into self-consciousness, to a pure and unsullied, conscious and free representation of the inner law of Divine Unity."	In the earliest years, to guide experiences of the child so as to gain an understanding of the world; to help him/her achieve this unity of man and his/her world that constitutes self-realization and perfectability. Enable the child to be creative; "to guide thinking, intelligent beings in the apprehension of their destiny." "The purely categorical, mandatory, and prescriptive education of man is not in place."	To select proper experiences for the young child with tangible things; in later years to help a student develop principles and ideals that would enable him/her to live with our children. "Foster the child's impulse to activity" but "in accord with the nature of man."

Chart 1 (Continued)

Educational Philosopher	Primary Purpose of Education	The Nature of Teaching (Stated or Implied)	Competencies Needed by a Teacher (Stated or Implied)
Immanuel Kant	To enable the person to achieve moral perfection and thus happiness. Free will must be governed by morality. Perfection is absolute moral worth. "Man can become man through education only." Children should be educated according to the idea of humanity and its entire destiny."	Guide the student in the development of maxims which he/she must work out for him/herself. Develop disposition to choose good ends. Guide the child in putting into practice the moral principles (maxims he acquires.	"We should see to it that the pupil behaves well from his own maxims and not from habit and that he not only does the good, but does it for the reason that it is good." Ability to guide the student in putting in to practice what he/she has learned, especially the maxims.
Johann H. Pestalozzi & Jean J. Rousseau	The natural development of the individual, in harmony with nature, leading on to the development of good men and women; self-realization and fulfillment of natural potentialities. "The aim of education can never by anything but the development of manliness, and that this originates in and develops though the harmonious cultivation of inborn capacities and talents!"	All instruction should conform to the natural unfolding of the child; start with intuition, natural interests, and needs and be organic and complete. Comprehensive in scope; total development especially intellectual and moral. "To instruct men is nothing more than to help human nature to develop in its own way." "Not to gain time, but to lose it," "Do not talk to the child about things he cannot understand." "Let the	Thorough understanding of the natural development of the young; knowledge of the psychology of development; fully individualize instruction. Guide the student's own initiative and interests. Provide a great variety of overt experience for each student. Know the sequence in which children develop so first things come first, and so on; "No-one should undertake the education of a child who cannot lead him where he wishes merely by the laws of possibility and impossibility."

Chart 1 (Continued)

Educational Philosopher	Primary Purpose of Education	The Nature of Teaching (Stated or Implied)	Competencies Needed by a Teacher (Stated or Implied)
		child take nothing for granted because someone says it is so."	
Maria Montessori	A natural process of development; attainment of perfection of character, intelligence, and feeling by giving the child freedom (liberty).	Prepare the environment for the child so that he/she can develop naturally; permit child to proceed on own initiative; completely individualized instruction; follow closely natural steps of activity from simple to more difficult; great deal of freedom to choose, yet order and plan needed; complete respect for child's personality.	Teacher serves as a model of desirable character traits; thoroughly familiar with the objects, apparatus, material for use in prepared environment and how and in what order to use. Remains unobstrusive, understands fully nature and order of child development and needs of the child; skill in observing children--how they learn, their needs and interests.
Herbert Spencer	To prepare the child for complete living.	Follow the natural development of the child; start with the simple, move to the complex, use overt experience as a basis for moving to the rational; students "should be told as little as possible, and induced to discover as much as possible."	Must for firmly grounded in a philosophy of education, understanding purposes of education, and competent to prepare a curriculum to achieve them. Great emphasis on psychology.

Chart 1 (continued)

Educational Philosopher	Primary Purpose of Education	The Nature of Teaching (Stated or Implied)	Competencies Needed by a Teacher (Stated or Implied)
Johann F. Herbart	To develop morality of the young. Morality includes Rectitude, which encompasses Right and Equity, goodness, and inner freedom, which includes benevolence.	Guide the education of the child so that he develops morality, character, interests. Interests are many-sided and all should be fostered. "Make the sense of right active early in youth." Assist students in arriving at moral principles themselves. "Never disturb what exists among children without good reason." Point "to what is best for the common good." Apperception is the key to all learning and hence teaching.	"Pedagogy is the science which the teacher needs for himself but he must also be a master of the science of imparting his knowledge." "Education through instruction regards everything as instruction which is given to the pupil as a subject of consideration," e.g., discipline. Formulate clearly the aims of education. Prepare in detail plans for attaining aims.
Horace Mann & Henry Barnard	"To preserve the good and repudiate the evil which now exists." To enable people to carry out and fulfill all the functions of good citizenship, especially those involving morality and	Transmit knowledge and by example and precept develop morals, virtues, and character. Avoid punishment by using a positive approach. "Superintend the growth of his pupils' minds."	Provide an example to children in morals, love, justice, virtue and all such traits. Know thoroughly the subject matter of the courses of instruction. "Influence, imperceptible in childhood, work out more

Chart 1 (continued)

Educational Philosopher	Primary Purpose of Education	The Nature of Teaching (Stated or Implied)	Competencies Needed by a Teacher (Stated or Implied)
	virtues; "Inspire the love of truth, as the supremest good, and clarify the vision of the intellect to discern it."		and more broadly into beauty or deformity." Great emphasis on profesional training--knowledge of the art of teaching.
Charles Eliot	To prepare for the duties of citizenship, especially in morals, and character. Develop the individual. Instill the use of reason, the scientific methods.	Develop learning skills, broad knowledge.	Excellent personality and character, serving as an example to pupils. Have adequate knowledge of subjects taught. Use actual experience, observation, etc. Knowledge of principles of teaching and psychology.
John Dewey	Continual reorganizing, reconstructing, and transforming experience; education is its own end; it is a process of continuous growth, growth with a social context; intelligence is the only basis for action; a priori deductive maxims and concepts are not valid; the good of mankind.	Study and learning must be a natural activity of the pupil, stemming from his or her own interests, motives, and needs; the starting point is the past experience of the pupil; self-direction; reorganize experience into structures, principles, and concepts.	Be able to find "the conditions which call out self-educative activities of pupils; understand interests, needs, concerns of pupils; be able to involve pupils in self-activity; guide the social direction of school experience."

Chart 1 (continued)

Educational Philosopher	Primary Pupose of Education	The Nature of Teaching (Stated or Implied)	Competencies Needed by a Teacher (Stated or Implied)
Alfred North Whitehead	"Purpose of education is to stimulate and guide their self-development." "Aim at producing men who possess both culture and expert knowledge." "Education is the acquisition of the art of the utilization of knowledge." "What education has to impart is an intimate sense for the power of ideas, for the beauty of ideas, and for the structure of ideas, together with a particular body of knowledge which has peculiar reference to the life of the being possessing it."	"Theoretical ideas should always find important applications within the pupils' curriculum." "Whatever interest attaches to your subject-matter must be evoked here and now; whatever powers . . . must be exercised here and now." "Eradicate the fatal disconnection of subjects. . . there is only one subject-matter for education, and that is Life in all its manifestations." "Different subjects and modes of study should be undertaken by pupils at fitting times when they have reached the proper stage of mental development."	To teach a subject in depth and to guide pupils in application of knowledge to life. Concentrate on few main ideas, but guide child in making them his own and in making application to life. "The art and science of education require a genius and a study of their own."

environmental factors and it is obviously impossible to judge the influence of any one or any set of factors in the development of human personality, But here, we are concerned with deliberate, overt, formal efforts to provide environmental conditions that may be assumed to shape personality in however small a degree.

Kant was one of the first renowned writers on education to emphasize the necessity of teacher education. He himself lectured on pedagogy, but he does not present a consistent, well-rounded theory of education or of teaching. Inasmuch as he insisted on moral perfection as the goal of life, it follows that he felt that teachers should exemplify a high degree of morality and freedom of will.

Hegel, Herbart, and other German philosophers followed, extended, and amplified Kant's views and added a great deal of their own thought. Herbart, especially, believed that the teacher should serve as a model, not only of moral virtue, but of the use of reason and intellect in facing life's experiences. His advocacy of the concept of apperception, of the role of the experiential background of the person in acting on new experience, would support the view that he would have wanted teachers to have a rich personal life of broad and varied experiences. And, in common with all of the other writers mentioned above, he insisted on high moral virtue among teachers.

Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Montessori all saw the necessity of preparing teachers in their respective modes of instruction, and all, except Rousseau, who was a theorist, not a practitioner, established programs for training teachers. But little direct attention to the enhancement of the personality of the teacher is evident in their programs. Montessori was particularly insistent that teachers have a love for children and that they themselves be models of desirable character traits. It is to be presumed that all of these writers wanted teachers of noble traits and virtue, but little is included in their works on such matters. Spencer dwelt extensively on the training of teachers and the role and responsibilities of teachers, but offers little in the way of overt recommendations on the development of personality.

Turning to the American scene, a general observation may be made that the early leaders in the development of public education and in teacher education--Jefferson, Franklin, Mann, Barnard, Eliot, Butler, Harris--took little account of the characteristics and personal traits of teachers, except for bland statements about moral character, religious faith, and political neutrality and inactivity. The educators among them were greatly interested, as has been shown in earlier chapters, in preparing teachers in the technology of teaching and in competency in subject matter to be taught. There is little evidence that the personal characteristics and traits of teachers were considered to be significant factors in teacher effectiveness until well into the twentieth century.

Rice, in his pioneer research, concluded that the teacher was the crucial factor in the effectivness of instruction, but he did not attempt to identify the personal characteristics of the teachers who were most successful. Except by implication, he does not give much consideration to the personal characteristics of teachers nor to plans for developing them. But other teacher educators, some even predating Rice's study, were attempting to determine the characteristics that identified good teachers and the body of literature on the subject grew rapidly.[1] Barr, in his excellent review of the subject, summarizes a large number of studies that investigated such attributes as resourcefulness, intelligence, emotional stability, consideration, buoyancy, objectivity, drive, dominance, attractiveness, refinement, cooperativeness, reliability, and general personality.[2] The most thorough going effort to identify the traits of teachers was the Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study.

However, these efforts to determine what traits and personal characteristics were correlated with success in teaching had little real effect on teacher education. The institutions had no plans, programs of experiences, or instructional processes for overtly and explicitly endeavoring to contribute to or enhance the growth and development of the prospective teacher as a person. Some institutions, but usually not until the late 1960s, refused to admit to matriculation students who did not meet prescribed I.Q. or other aptitude test scores, or eliminated some candidates on the basis of character or moral deficiencies. Most, simply, let the candidates become certified passing on to the employing school systems the responsibility of eliminating the inept or deficient ones. It should be acknowledged, however, that a few institutions did establish residential colleges, house plans, or other ways of providing a broader and more varied program of undergraduate experiences than offered by the typical program of prescribed courses, requirements, and sets of majors and minors.

Several of the nine Comprehensive Models for the Preparation of Elementary School Teachers contain plans for sets of experiences aimed specifically at personality development. Broader programs for providing laboratory and field experiences prior to student teaching and more varied and extensive programs of student teaching also offered promise of contributing to an experiential base that would enhance the development of aspects of character and personality traits. Yet many teacher preparation programs today are as unconcerned about personality development or else as inept in providing experiences or activities for the building of personality and character as were those of the nineteenth and early twentieth century.

That plans and programs for the development and enhancement of personality and for the refinement and clarification of a system of values are an essential part of teacher education should not be disputed. It seems evident today that again the personal attributes and moral character of a teacher are regarded by educators, administrators, parents, and students alike as primary factors in determining the quality and merit of programs of schooling for the children and youth of America. The teacher is indeed a model for students, especially in such aspects of personality as compassion, truthfulness, integrity, impartiality and fairness, rationality, concern about the future of mankind, empathy, belief in the perfectability of man, and desire for lifelong learning.[3]

The evidence indicates that this generalization is particulary applicable to the relationships between a teacher and those students who have greatly diminished opportunities to experience such characteristics of humaneness in other social and family situations.

It behooves all teacher educators, then, if this observation is valid, to give much more attention to the development of the prospective teacher as a person qua person. Those establishing competency-in-performance programs of teacher education are especially challenged by the very nature of innovation to include this major aspect of preparation in their respective systems, or fully acknowledge that personality enhancement is beyond the pale of this portion of teacher education and, hence, take appropriate steps to provide these aspects of a total program outside the system. On the other hand, proponents of traditional modes of teacher education should "either put up or shut up."

As a number of recent studies show, adults later in life rate most highly and praise most lavishly those teachers who had exhibited to a high degree these most virtuous character traits of a humane person, and scorn most bitterly those who seemingly were cold, indifferent, caustic, lazy, muddleheaded, indifferent, bigoted, or contemptuous of students, especially those of the lower socioeconomic status.

Teacher education institutions, whether adhering to a traditional program of training or endeavoring to develop a more effective competency-based one, desperately need to face openly and fully this matter of the personality and character traits of the teacher-in-training. This requires a three-step process: Agreement by teacher educators, members of the profession, and the public what comprises the basic personality and character traits of teachers held in high esteem and the kinds of evidence that assure the possession of such traits; the development of experimental programs to enhance personal development; and stern measures to eliminate from training or the profession when in service those persons who are judged by competent evaluators to be seriously deficient.

The Teacher as a Teacher

Much of the presentation in previous chapters considers the preparation of the teacher to fulfill his/her duties and responsibilities in the process of schooling. Chart 2 is included here as a tabular summary of the work and program of various agencies and organizations that have contributed significantly to the development of programs of teacher education in this country and of several significant movements in education that have had important bearing on teacher education. The notations about programs are briefly stated and indicate only the nature of contributions. A somewhat more extensive treatment is included in the earlier chapters. Many factors that have influenced to a greater or lesser degree the development of teacher education are not listed, such as social, demographic, economic, political, and warring conditions prevalent at

Chart 2

Agencies, Organizations, or Movements Contributing Significantly to the Development of Teacher Education in the United States

Agency or Movement	Approximate Dates	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
Normal schools, teacher seminaries	1820s-1910s	Provided programs for the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools and, to some extent, the high schools.	Provided the first corps of persons trained to be teachers; demonstrated the importance of special programs of preparation for teaching; contributed to the establishment of teaching as a profession; provided a large body of experience on desirable elements in teacher preparation; contributed to the evolution of a large corps of teacher educators who gradually attained expertise in the preparation of teachers; gained acceptance of principle of state tax support for education of teachers; contributed to the evolution of an institutional structure for preparing teachers.
Oswego, New York, State Normal and Training School	1861-1880s	Object Teaching System of Instruction	Emphasis placed on acquisition of specific skills and techniques for teaching; extensive practice in using these skills in classrooms.
National Education Association	1857-present	Professional organization for educators, with many subgroups for particular	Contributed greatly to the professionalization of teaching; provided forum for discussion of all sorts of professional matters, including teacher education;

Chart 2 (continued)

Agency or Movement	Approximate Dates	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
		interests and specialties.	reports of many study groups on educational matters; research on educational subjects; improvement of programs for preparation of teachers; formulation of standards for programs of teacher education; preparation of legislative bills and lobbying for passage relative to teaching and teacher education; providing public information on the profession and its status, the nature and function of schooling, and educational issues and problems.
American Normal School Association, later the Department of Normal Schools	1855-1925	Professional organization of normal school leaders and staffs.	Discussed and guided development of normal schools; published many addresses, discussion, and reports; Normal-School Committee of Five made recommendations for improvement of program.
Department of Higher Education, later Association for Higher Education, NEA	1870-present	Professional organization for college and university administrators and staff members.	Influential in guiding development of higher education in this country. Much attention given to teacher education matters in these institutions.

Chart 2 (continued)

Agency or Movement	Approximate Dates	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
National Association of School Superintendents, later Department of Superintendence, then American Association of School Administrators, NEA	1865-present	Professional organization of administrators of schools and related occupations.	Often during its history issued reports and yearbooks directly related to teachers, their training, welfare, supervision, rating as to effectiveness, etc. Contributed to advancement of education generally.
American Federation of Teachers	1916-present	Trade union type of organization for teachers.	Promotion of the welfare of teachers; highly instrumental in determining working conditions, terms of employment, salary and fringe benefits; instrumental in greatly expanding role of teachers in decision-making, planning, etc.
Voluntary accrediting associations	1885-present	Regional associations of schools and of colleges and universities on institutional basis.	Set standards for membership in the associations, thus exercising great influence on administrative and management practices and policies; a powerful force in determining nature and structure of teacher education programs.

Chart 2 (continued)

Agency or Movement	Approximate Dates	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
National Society of College Teachers of Education, later Society of Professors of Education	1902-present	A professional organization of staff members of teacher education institutions.	Conferences provided opportunity to hear addresses and to discuss matters related to education of teachers; issued yearbooks on subjects of concern to members; shop talk on teacher education, courses, etc.
Scientific Movement	1900s-present	Apply methods of scientific investigation to study of educational matters; development of tests and instruments for study of schooling, achievement, personality, etc.; collection and analysis of data, on all aspects of education; psychological studies--learning, motivation, growth and development, cognitive process.	Development and rapid expansion of the whole testing movement that greatly influenced teaching and training of teachers; teaching methods adapted to findings of research; studies of teachers themselves--traits, characteristics, problems, activities, classroom behaviors--provide body of concepts on learning, motivation, social development, etc.

Chart 2 (continued)

Agency or Movement	Approximate Dates	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
Flexner's Reports	1910, 1916	Investigation of medical education; proposals for reform in schools.	By contributing to tremendous upgrading of medical education, gave impetus to improvement of training in teaching profession; plans for reform of schools led to establishment of Lincoln School and "progressive school" movement.
Establishment of departments and colleges of education in universities and colleges	1870s-1910s	Courses and programs in teacher education offered at collegiate level.	Upgraded teacher education programs to collegiate rank; made available resources and prestige of universities and colleges for professional education of teacher.
Establishment of teachers colleges	1900s-1930s	Normal schools raised to collegiate level; new teacher colleges created.	Establishment of teacher education as collegiate-level program; increased greatly number of institutions preparing teachers; contributed to rise in quality and extent of professional education.
Founding of Teachers College, Columbia University	1880	Establishment of an independent center of collegiate and graduate rank for education of teachers.	Gave great impetus to establishment of colleges of education in universities; became center for innovative developments in teacher education; fostered research; theoretical and philosophical bases for education engendered; Lincoln School and other laboratory schools served as models for "progressive schools."

Chart 2 (continued)

Agency or Movement	Approximate Date	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
Carnegie Foundation, "A Study Based upon an Examination of Tax-Supported Normal Schools in Missouri"	1914-1920	Comprehensive study of teacher education and of institutional programs.	A status study in great detail of teacher education; extensive recommendations for improvement, with proposals for specific programs of training for prospective teachers.
National Association of Colleges and Departments of Education, National Association of Teacher Education Institutions in Metropolitan Districts, American Association of Teachers Colleges, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education	1917-present	Professional organization for institutions of teacher education.	Provided leadership in field of professional education of teachers; published yearbooks and reports on teacher education; accredited teacher education institutions and guided establishment of National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education; conferences and councils for administrators of institutions that fostered improvement of teacher education; advocacy of performance-based programs of teacher education.

Chart 2 (continued)

Agency or Movement	Approximate Date	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
Job analysis and life activities method of curriculum design	1920s-present	Based the design of the curriculum on studies of what persons do or what items of learning they use in life situations; direct teaching to meet specific job or daily life requirements.	Constitutes the primary basis for performance based-teacher education, with direct lineage; prompted teachers and curriculum committees to formulate more realistic goals and objectives for schooling; provided more significant base for evaluation; gradual elimination of much obsolete and meaningless content from curriculum, both in schools and teacher education.
Minimum essentials movement in curriculum construction	1890s-1920s	Specify what should comprise the minimum content to be taught (by implication the maximum) in the basic school subjects in elementary grades.	Teaching, in such a plan, became more prescribed, rigid, and routinized; contributed to elimination of much obsolete and tedious content from basic subjects; teachers trained in methodology to teach this content with minimum "waste."
The Progressive Education Association and the Eight Year Study	1919-1940s	Professional organization for persons active in development of new programs of schooling; experiment in the effects of innovative programs on success in college.	Contributed significantly to formulation and advocacy of concepts of child-centered schooling; assisted teachers in developing innovative programs; founded the teacher education workshop movement; contributed greatly to expansion and broadening the role of teachers in program planning; promoted concepts of student needs as basis for program planning, hence introducing much more flexibility and pupil activity in teaching.

Chart 2 (continued)

Agency or Movement	Approximate Date	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
Teacher centered curriculum development programs in school systems and state departments of education	1920s-present	Establishment of curriculum planning programs in which teacher committees prepared guides, courses of study, and the like for school's program; system or statewide study programs of curriculum matters; programs of inservice education and teacher orientation.	Teachers became the primary agents in curriculum and instructional planning, greatly enhancing role and responsibilities of teachers; extensive programs of inservice education; expansion of work in curriculum planning in teacher education programs; emergence of the curriculum specialist in the profession.
Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study	1925-1929	Study of the traits and activities of teachers; and proposals for courses in teacher education.	Application of the job analysis technique to teaching; provides refined list of desirable traits of teachers, and exhaustive list of the activities of teachers qua teachers; some influence on course development in teacher education institutions.
National Survey of the Education of Teachers	1930-1935	Extensive status survey of teachers in the United States, and some limited analysis of teacher education in other countries.	Comprehensive sets of data on teachers and their status in early 1930s; historical data on teacher education, certification, etc.; lengthy sets of recommendations for the improvement of the status of teachers, their preparation, and on the problems of supply and demand.

Chart 2 (continued)

Agency or Movement	Approximate Date	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education	1936-1946	Cooperative study project to improve teacher education programs, both preservice and inservice.	Prompted teacher education institutions and school systems to study intensively teacher education and to develop improved programs; involvement of the faculty of the institutions in program evaluation and planning, revealed difficulties and problems in bringing about improved programs; contributed to significant advances in the child study movement among teachers and institutions.
Teacher certification	Colonial times to present	Require those who teach in schools to be licensed by the state or local school authorities.	In varying degrees over these 2½ centuries specified minimum requirements for teaching; great influence on teacher education programs; usually fostered rigidity, traditionalism, mastery of subject content; set minimum requirements for institutions; prevented non-trained persons from teaching.
National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education	1952-present	Accredits teacher education programs in colleges and universities.	Sets standards for the accreditation of teacher education institutions; appropriate committees judge whether institution's facilities, structure, and program merit accreditation; requires periodic review and evaluation of its program by each institution as basis for approval; places large measure of control over teacher education in the existing establishment.

Chart 2 (continued)

Agency or Movement	Approximate Date	Nature of Efforts	Significance for Teacher Education
National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA	1946-present	Study programs of teacher education and develop plans for improvement; sponsored "New Horizons Project."	Held national and regional conference on wide variety of matters in teacher education; formulated recommendations and proposals for improvement in teacher education; fostered movement to enable teachers to have greater control over admission to profession and training provided.
Project on New Horizons in Teacher Education and Professional Standards	1959-1961	Definitive statements on various aspects of teacher education.	Analyzed status of the profession and made extensive recommendations on the improvement of teacher education and professional stature of teacher; disseminated findings through publications and conferences.
Teacher Education and Media Project, AACTE	1964-1968	Prepared models and recommendations for preservice education.	Early effort to apply a systems model to teacher education planning; extensive sets of recommendations for improvement of teacher education.
Comprehensive Elementary Teacher Education Models	1967	Federally funded project in nine teacher education institutions to prepare models for teacher education programs.	Extensive plans in great detail for new programs for preparation of teachers; lists of competencies needed by teacher, and procedures for developing them, involving performance-based programs.

particular times, nor have groups, studies, or movements whose primary purposes or activities were not directed at the development of teacher education programs been considered. Moreover, many programs and activities of a local nature, although undoubtedly of significance in the development of teacher education in this country, are not included.

Chart 3 is a list of some of the persons who have contributed in significant ways to the development of teacher education programs in this country during the period from the turn of the century to mid-century. Their contributions are treated at greater length in earlier chapters. Missing from the list are a great number of nationally known professors, school administrators, and organizational officers who also made significant contributions, such as Carleton Washburne, Florence Stratemeyer, Karl Bigelow, Alexander Ingles, Thomas Briggs, Paul Mort, Henry Harap, Earle Rugg, Doak Campbell, Wilford Aiken, Harold Alberty, Kimball Wiles, Earl Armstrong, Paul Hanna, J. Paul Leonard, Frank Freeman, Water S. Monroe, Charles De Garmo, Daniel Prescott, Ernest Horn, Lulu Zirbes, Frank and Charles McMurry, Henry Morrison, Virgil Rogers, Harold Benjamin, Vernon Anderson, and Charles Hunt. Those listed in Chart 3 are persons who, as described earlier, directed some movement or effort that directly and significantly influenced teacher education, nationally.

Programs for the preparation of teachers to fulfill adequately and qualitatively their responsibilities and duties as professional workers in the schools of this country have been the subject of controversy, scorn, and ridicule, and have been characterized by indecision, ineptness, and unreality ever since the first formal programs were initiated early in the nineteenth century. Educators of all persuasions and types of responsibility and the purveyors of teacher education itself have tried diligently over the decades to bring about improvements in the programs, and the situation has changed greatly for the better, especially since the 1940s, but the profession as a whole has not yet been able to establish institutions, agencies, and programs for teacher education that carry the prestige, respect, and acceptance of its participants, it recipients, or the public generally as have accrued to the preparatory programs in most other professions, especially, medicine, engineering, law, dentistry, architecture, or the scientific fields.

The members of the organized profession never seized the opportunity to take control of preparatory programs as did the medical profession after the Flexner Report brought to public attention the low state of that profession in the 1910s. Low grade, inadequate, and slovenly carried-out programs of teacher education have never been weeded out by ruthless action of the profession, as in medicine, and in no instance in the long history of teacher education has any extensive effort ever been made to restrict severely entrance into the professional training programs.

Chart 3

Selected Leaders Who Contributed Significantly to Teacher Education Developments, 1890s-1950s

Person	Life Span	Major Positions	Nature of Contributions
Bagley, William C.	1874-1946	Teacher in public and normal schools; professor, University of Illinois, 1908-1917 & Teachers College, Columbia (1917-1940)	Author of many books on teaching and on teacher education; directed surveys of schools and higher institutions; director of study of teacher education in Missouri; served on many important professional committees and councils.
Barr, Arvil S.	1892-1962	Teacher in public schools; supervisor in Detroit schools, 1921-1924; professor, University of Wisconsin (1924-1961)	Author of numerous books on teaching, supervision, and teacher education; editor of two major educational journals; conducted much research on teacher traits, characteristics, and effectiveness; summarized research on these subjects.
Bobbitt, Franklin	1876-1956	Teacher in rural and village schools and in Philippine Normal School, 1902-1907; professor, University of Chicago (1909-1941).	One of earliest authorities and consultant on curriculum planning; based curriculum design on life needs and activities that greatly expanded role of teacher in planning and teaching.
Bode, Boyd H.	1873-1953	Professor, University of Illinois, 1909-1921 and Ohio State University (1921-1944).	A foremost advocate of Dewey's philosophy of education but with definite structure in curriculum; criticized excesses of progressive education movement, desiring more emphasis on social responsibilities of schools.

Chart 3 (continued)

Person	Life Span	Major Positions	Nature of Contributions
Butler, Nicholas Murray	1862-1947	Professor and President Columbia University (1885-1945)	Leader in establishing Teachers College; organized College Entrance Examination Board that profoundly affected high school curriculum and teaching methods; president NEA, 1895; actively promoted teacher education; editor, Educational Review (1889-1920).
Caswell, Hollis L.	1901-	Teacher and administrator in public schools; professor, George Peabody College (1929-1937); director, dean, and president, Teachers College, Columbia (1937-1962)	Directed state curriculum planning programs that involved participation by all teachers; leader in curriculum development movement for many years; author of books on planning and teaching; organized institute of school experimentation to work with schools in developing improved programs.
Charters, Werrett W.	1875-1952	Teacher in rural schools in Canada; normal school teacher; professor University of Missouri (1907-1917) and a number of universities; professor, Ohio State University (1928-1942)	Leading advocate of job-analysis design for curriculum, both in schools and colleges; director Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study; proposals for new courses in teacher education; writer on curriculum planning.

Chart 3 (continued)

Person	Life Span	Major Positions	Nature of Contributions
Conant, James B.	1893-	Professor, and President, Harvard University (1919-1953); director of studies of high school programs and of teacher education.	Active in development of new approaches to general education in colleges; advocate of high school program emphasizing academic subjects and teaching mastery of content; extensive proposals for reform of teacher education and for placing more control in state departments of education and nonprofessional bodies.
Cubberley, Ellwood	1868-1941	Superintendent of schools; professor and dean, Stanford University (1898-1933).	Directed many surveys of schools and of state programs of education; developed strong program of teacher education; wrote extensively on teaching, school administration, and history of education.
Evenden, Edward S.	1884-1957	Teacher, State Normal School; professor, Teachers College, Columbia (1918-1950).	Directed National Survey of the Education of Teachers; director, Commission on Teacher Education; made surveys of teacher education in states and institutions; served on a number of committees in the field of teacher education.
Hall, G. Stanley	1846-1924	Professor at Johns Hopkins (1881-1888); president Clark University (1888-1920).	Foremost authority on psychology, and its application to teaching; his theories were basis of much of methods of teaching, and courses in methodology; influential in education circles in advocating policies and practices; wrote extensively on psychology and educational matters.

Chart 3 (continued)

Person	Life Span	Major Positions	Nature of Contributions
Harris, William T.	1835-1909	Teacher and superintendent St. Louis Schools (1957-1880) U.S. Commissioner of Education (1889-1906).	Introduced kindergartens in U.S.; advocate of idealism as a philosophy and hence of strong academic program in schools; active participant in educational groups and commissions; distinguished career as U.S. Commissioner.
Judd, Charles H.	1873-1946	Professor, several universities, then University of Chicago, and also head of education (1909-1938).	Foremost educational psychologist, and in applying it to teaching; president North Central Association 1923; directed school surveys; active in many educational committees and commissions; wrote extensively on education and teaching; consultant to school systems.
Kilpatrick, William H.	1871-1965	Teacher in secondary schools; professor at Mercer University (1897-1906), then Teachers College, Columbia (1909-1938)	A leading interpreter of Dewey's philosophy; taught tens of thousands of teachers concepts of progressive education; active in progressive education movement and in the Eight-Year Study; participated in many of the early workshops for teachers.
Parker, Francis W.	1837-1902	Teacher in public schools; superintencent at Quincy, Mass. (1975-1880); supervisor in Boston schools (1880-1883); principal Cook County Normal School (1883-1896).	Leading superintendent of his day, introducing new practices and structures in schools; developed outstanding program of teacher education; worked with Dewey and contributed much to his thinking in early years; directed an outstanding laboratory school.

Chart 3 (continued)

Person	Life Span	Major Positions	Nature of Contributions
Rugg, Harold	1886-1960	Professor, Universities of Illinois (1911-1915) and Chicago (1915-1920), then Teachers College, Columbia (1920-1951)	As director of curriculum, developed the innovative program at Lincoln School that provided model for the progressive movement; long a leader in curriculum development movement, writing extensively on these matters; developed a new design for social studies that greatly influenced teaching.
Russell, James E.	1864-1945	High school teacher; professor University of Colorado (1895-1897); dean (head) Teachers College, Columbia University (1897-1931)	Developed an outstanding program of undergraduate teacher and graduate teacher education, setting a pattern for other institutions; brought together a staff of leading teacher educators and specialists, often of divergent points of view; active in many teacher education groups and organizations.
Strayer, George D.	1876-1962	Teacher in elementary and secondary schools; professor, Teachers College, Columbia (1905-1943)	A leading figure in developing professional training programs for administrators; wrote extensively on educational subjects; conducted many surveys of school systems, state programs, and teacher education institutions.
Thorndike, Edward L.	1874-1949	Professor, Teachers College, Columbia (1899-1941)	Foremost authority on psychology, and on its application to teaching; many research studies on psychological subjects related to education and teaching; author of widely used textbooks on educational psychology and other topics.

Chart 3 (continued)

Person	Life Span	Major Positions	Nature of Contributions
Tyler, Ralph W.	1902-	High school teacher and supervisor of student teaching; professor, Ohio State University; professor and director School of Education, University of Chicago (1938-1953); director Center for Advanced Study in Behavioral Sciences (1953-1967).	Developed basic concepts and new approaches to evaluation of educational outcomes; assisted schools in using better methods of evaluation; consultant to many educational projects and groups; writings on curriculum planning, teaching, and learning.

Members of the profession could never agree, nor were any concentrated national efforts ever made through the organized profession, to establish a set of feasibly administered criteria for admission to preparatory programs. None exists today. Accreditation of teacher education programs has only brought about tinkering with structures and external matters and a little shuffling around of courses or programs, with decisions and reviews on accreditation reflecting quite largely opinions and value judgments of visiting and status review committee members, often representing the more traditional and conservative views of the profession. Solid, meaningful and continuing breakthroughs in teacher education still remain to be achieved. Whether competency-based programs will result in a great thrust forward in the improvement of the quality of teacher education in this country is not yet determined, but any informed person should agree that the whole movement has been salutatory.

An essential element in the improvement of teacher education, in the opinion of the investigator, is much greater involvement of the members of the profession themselves in the planning, control, and evaluation of the program, much as exists today in the professions of medicine, dentistry, and law. The organized profession has become more aggressive in recent years in this matter, but resistance from the teacher education institutions is equally vigorous. Another basic ingredient of a quality program is a period of internship/residency much in the pattern of the medical profession. Furthermore, a novice teacher should never be granted permanent tenure until he/she has successfully completed two probationary periods: the first of three years, at which point most of the dismissal from the profession would occur, but a second one of five years, a period to ensure competency in all aspects of teaching discussed here. Dismissal or approval at both points would not be a routine, slipshod matter, but a thorough evaluation by representatives of the profession, the students, and the public. After almost a century and a half of criticism, ridicule, scorn and contempt of its program for preparing its members, it is high time the profession take drastic steps to upgrade teacher education.

The Teacher as a Member of the Profession

The third aspect of the life and work of a teacher--his/her duties and responsibilities to the profession qua profession--is difficult to distinguish from the preparation of the person to be a teacher, but the emphasis in this component of teaching is on the role of teacher in promoting the cause of education itself, in working for the improvement of schooling as an aspect of human development in the society generally, and in contributing to the advancement of teaching as a profession and schooling as a social enterprise.

Examples of what may properly be categorized in this area of responsibility include understanding the legal basis for the whole social institutions of schools--establishment, finances, governance, program responsibilities, staffing, etc.--and deciding if these structures are valid and appropriate for today's conditions; understanding the nature, program, and potentialities of professional organizations, and joining and working with appropriate ones to improve schooling and the status and welfare of teachers; cooperating with fellow members in the enhancement of the profession generally; cooperating in and supporting efforts to conduct research on a variety of subjects relating to teaching and teachers; and contributing individually and collectively to the development of public understanding of educational matters.

In general, programs of teacher education, except at the graduate level, and then only for specialists in a pertinent area, include little study of or laboratory experience in these aspects of professional understanding and activity. Some topics are treated incidentally in courses and programs designed for other purposes, and extraclass activities through student organizations may provide opportunities for professionalization, but such efforts are quite meager and seriously inadequate to achieve the professionalization envisioned more than a century ago by Horace Mann and Henry Barnard.[4]

One or more organizations exist in any teacher education institution for students in training, but seldom do they have the stature, prestige, or influence among students that accrue to similar organizations for the students in law, engineering, or music. It would be quite a boon to the profession if students in teacher education vied for positions as editor or staff members of a student educational journal as law students do for positions on their Law Review.

The Teacher as a Citizen

The fourth aspect of a teacher's personality that may be identified for purposes of planning a complete program of teacher education is his/her life as a citizen of a social group. Every citizen has social responsibilities and duties, and enjoys many privileges bestowed by the group as an informal and formal corporate body. Inasmuch as a teacher works professionally in a social agency established by the society to serve designated social purposes, he/she is particularly involved in social action and hence has a greater role as a citizen than may inhere in most other occupations.[5]

Some of the areas of participation in the social life of the group include political activities (which obviously are also an aspect of professionalism), social action to achieve group objectives, participation in group activities of one kind or another, and contribution to social activities and interpersonal relationships with members of the group.

Again, past and current programs of teacher education must be heavily faulted for the lack of overt efforts to prepare teachers in this aspect of development. It is recognized that socialization of an individual stems from many sources, particularly the home, peer groups, and the common schools, but here concern is expressed for a breadth of experience in social activities, for an expansion and deepening of sensitivity to social problems, issues, and conditions, and for an adequate understanding of and the development of the desire and willingness to assume an active role in the enhancement of the life of the social group in its many manifestations. Unlike the area of personal development, even the literature on the education of teachers gives scant attention to this matter.[6] In fact, until as recently as the post-World War II period, teachers were expected and often required by board of education rules and certainly by community pressure to avoid any kind of overt political activity. Their social activities in the community also were circumscribed even as late as the 1930s by specific clauses in their contracts, board regulations, or citizen "talk."

This situation has changed greatly in recent years, largely in spite of the teacher education institutions. Currently some limited programs and projects, often of an extracurricular nature, are available in some of the more innovative institutions. Most of the nine model programs for the education of elementary teachers, developed under the aegis of the U.S. Office of Education, provide planned, overt programs of social participation and experience. But political and social activism are still beyond the pale of institutional sponsorship.

House plans and residential "colleges" or centers in a number of institutions provide opportunities for social action and intercourse, although these groupings seldom involve teachers-in-training as a deliberate policy; programs for involvement in community experiences of a variety of types are now more common among teachers colleges, as are other types of activities in tutoring, counseling, recreation, one-to-one social activities, work with agencies in the inner city, and the like. But far too many students in teacher education still remain an isolate, with little social experiences of a meaningful nature beyond a small circle of associates.

What About Competency-in-Performance Teacher Education?

In its initial stages of development, performance-based teacher education programs have been subjected to sharp criticism for their failure to provide a broad, inclusive plan of study, activities, and experiences that encompass all four of these aspects of the work and life of the teacher.

If the teacher of teachers (and the administrators of the institutions, too) reject this analysis of the scope and function of teacher education, then the disagreement is at the level of values and not at the level of process and methodology to fulfill functions; if the analysis is accepted as reasonably valid in a general way, then consideration turns to the process and methodology of teacher education.

If the latter situation is accepted, competency-in-performance programs of teacher education must devise programs of training and the means and procedures for demonstrating competency for all four aspects of teacher development. The critics contend that this condition has not been met in existing programs and many feel that measures of competency-in-performance will be extremely difficult if not impossible to devise for any phases of teacher education except the technology of teaching and knowledge of subject fields--the two aspects of teacher development with over a century of tradition. Yet in recent years, an increasing body of research supports the deductive reasoning that dominated the writings of philosophers from Socrates to Dewey in postulating the tremendous significance of the personal factors--character, morality, traits, exemplary behavior, and interpersonal relationships--in the total impact of schooling on the child and the youth.[7]

The challenge to the proponents of performance-based teacher education programs is clear. In light of the broad scope propounded for teacher education in this study, it is recommended that the determination of competency-in-performance of prospective teachers be delayed for a final judgment until after the teacher candidate has participated in a period of internship and/or residency in full-fledged teaching situations similar to the residency requirements for a medical doctor. Final judgment and certification as a professional would not occur until the competency has been fully demonstrated over a period of three to five years. A paper-and-pencil showing of competency, a series of micro-teaching demonstrations, or a brief period--six to eighteen weeks--of "practice" teaching (often with little real "practice) are obviously insufficient and inadequate measures of the kinds of competencies noted philosophers, educators, and teachers of teachers have written about for generations on end.

Footnotes

[1] See especially these early studies or summaries of investigations: William C. Reudiger and George D. Strayer, "The Qualities of Merit in Teachers," Journal of Educational Psychology, 1:272-278, March, 1910; Arthur C. Boyce, Methods for Measuring Teachers' Efficiency, 14th Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1915); and A. R. Mead, "Qualities of Merit in Good and Poor Teachers," Journal of Educational Research, 20:239-259, November, 1929.

[2] Arvid S. Barr, "Teaching Competences," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, ed. Walter S. Monroe, 1950 edition (New York: Macmillan Company, 1950), pp. 1446-1454.

[3] For some views of adults in reflecting on their high school education see John Flanagan and Darlene Russ-Eft, Empirical Study to Aid in Formulating Educational Goals (Palo, Alto, CA.: American Institute for Research, 1975).

[4] W. W. Charters, Jr., in his exhaustive and excellent review of the social factors influencing teachers, devotes a section to the induction of teachers into the profession and cites pertinent literature; see his "The Social Background of Teaching," Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1963), pp. 748-756.

[5] For an excellent study of this component of a teacher's life and work and an extensive bibliography of the literature see Charters, pp. 715-813.

[6] A few significant efforts to provide experiences of a social nature for prospective teachers were made as a part of the progressive education movement of the 1930s, e.g., New College of Teachers College, Columbia; Bennington College and Sarah Lawrence College provided similar programs for their students, some of whom later became teachers.

[7] For a review of the evidence and a bibliography of studies see Charles E. Bidwell, "The Social Psychology of Teaching," Second Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. Robert M. W. Travers (New York: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1973), pp. 413-449.